

THE CLEARING HOUSE

*A journal for progressive junior and
senior high-school people*

Vol. VIII

OCTOBER, 1933

No. 2

Editorial

Whither the Social Studies?

The term "social sciences" applies properly to the aspirations of sociologists, economists, geographers, historians, and governmental specialists to develop techniques for describing, evaluating, and forecasting social facts, processes, and results analogous to those used in the natural sciences. Except as the term applies to attitudes and methods, it has little meaning for the social studies pursued in secondary schools. Too many factors, such as climate, folk ways, emotions, and chance reinforcements or thwartings, occur for events, causes, and results to be standardized or predictable.

In the present confused state of society, however, the potential importance of social awareness and information makes it mandatory for all who are hopeful for positive social contributions by the school to focus their best efforts on making the social sciences function for social ends. The degree of certainty that we feel regarding *desirable* social ends will doubtless affect the preciseness of our proposals and programs. Lacking the sureness of the fascist, the communist, or the eruditionist, progressive teachers and curriculum makers must set goals in tolerances, enthusiasms, social practices, and intellectual and spiritual adaptability. Only the general direction of social movement can be known; hence, in America, getting children ready for future homes, future jobs, future politics, and future recreations has definite limitations in the nature of the uncertainty of our forecasts. Youths cannot

be prepared for a future which they themselves are to affect creatively, except in the sense of practice in planning, modifying, and creating their present or projected social environments.

Current proposals for social-studies instruction in secondary schools. The obvious challenges to social-science enthusiasts to do something to meet the present condition of social "illiteracy" among the American people has resulted in considerable activity. As might be expected, conflicting and often contradictory purposes and programs for the social studies are prevalent.

At the one extreme, there are the subject-matter advocates—especially the geography and history enthusiasts—who resist every effort to synthesize or to integrate the various social sciences, except as their pet subjects are made the centers for correlation. At the other extreme, there are those who are so interested in present and future social problems that they propose the *teaching*—even the indoctrination—of beliefs and attitudes and "knowledges" regarding the courts and the constitution; regarding international relations, peace pacts, military policies, and the League of Nations; regarding social control of economic resources, sanitary conditions, social security in the era of technology just ahead; generally the spokesmen for this program would discard the "subjects" of history, geography, economics, etc., but they would include such aspects of them as might illuminate the inevitability or desirability of future states of affairs.

Between the two extremes are found various other individuals or groups who hold no brief for subjects, qua subjects, but who are skeptical of attempts to bring about a superior society through the superimposition of ideas and patterns. Some of them fear lest pupils learn a readiness to be indoctrinated rather than a grasp of the doctrine itself. Such a readiness, it is sometimes asserted, is already too widespread in America with its conformities to customs and to slogans.

The social studies must direct their program against the supremacy of the "average" man. It is this "average" man who has become enthroned in democratic countries, but especially in the United States wherein the pioneer spirit and frontier life set up such new values as to undermine and almost to destroy faith in an intellectual aristocracy. For the intellectuals have seldom had adequate solutions for the problems that a pioneering people have had to meet.

Hence it has come about that our governments and our social institutions are conceived to be ultimately responsible to the average man. But this "average" man is so stereotyped that he has been the victim of propaganda from one vested group after another. At times, he has even accepted corruption in politics, not only as inevitable but even as beneficial to him! He has felt that political corruption makes for good business, that it may be offset by the efficiency of those who engage in it, that it provides a necessary incentive for public officers to exert themselves.¹ The average man is not much shocked even when he discovers that business barons steal national naval oil reserves or that important officials who are responsible for "driving the money changers from the temple" have themselves been recipients of the barons' largess. With a shrug of the shoulders he turns to the sport page, the market report, the movies, and the radio. "The salvation of [democratic] society,"

says J. M. Mecklin,² "is ultimately the salvation of the average man." If the public schools in general and the social studies in particular are to function as levers for lifting society by its own bootstraps, curriculum makers and teachers must see clearly that there must first be released a questioning and acting and purposive man from within the heart and mind of this "average man." Merely giving him one set of fixed ideas to replace his old ones will leave him unable to create new patterns or to modify his behaviors as new problems arise.

Social studies find their great opportunities, therefore, first, in dealing with controversial questions in terms of ideas and principles, of proposals and counter-proposals, but without settling these questions beyond the setting down of assumptions and hypotheses, and, second, in directing pupils' efforts to the actual improvement of those social institutions with which they are now or may be brought into actual contact—school organizations, homes, community, sanitary conditions, purchasing of goods and services. To the degree that subjects do release youths from the restraints of traditions and conformities, and do help them to participate personally and actively in creating a better environment, they cease to be "average" and become dynamic spirits ready to control life.

P. W. L. C.

The School and the Emerging Social Structure

Whenever a powerful and intelligent group within a social system formulates an ideal plan for a social structure, formal and informal educational instruments are shaped and directed to promote its realization. While the first definite statement of this policy was, perhaps, that of Plato, the priests, kings, and military chiefs had anticipated him in practice by many millennia.

Influenced both by the age-long practices of social control and by Plato's plan for

¹ W. K. Wallace, *Thirty Years of Modern History* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926), p. 56.

² *Introduction to Social Ethics* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1930), pp. 8-10.

achieving "the Republic," the spiritual and temporal lords of the Middle Ages developed their dogma and their educational techniques whereby the clergy and the landed aristocracy sought to assure the permanency of ecclesiastical and knightly cultures. So effectively did they impose these social patterns that the teaching of culture—the equipment of the socially *élite*—by means of "truths" and facts set forth to be memorized and re-cited has ever since dominated scholastic education from the primary school to the graduate school of the university.

New subjects are accepted into the curriculum and new schools of educational thought gain dominance, but the traditional stereotypes continue to stultify both programs and practice. Universal schooling succeeds monastic and lay aristocratic schools, but the relatively meaningless and futile academic verbalistic grind goes on; textbooks and class procedures merely make regimentation of thought and behavior more readily achieved. Sciences and history and vernacular and art and handicrafts insinuate themselves into the curriculum, but they are taught as "right ways," as facts, as truths, as "culture," and as accomplishments to be obtained in order to achieve educational and social recognition. So overwhelming is the educational pattern that even liberal, progressive, and democratic educational leaders surrender themselves to the past, and propose to build a new social order in our schools by means of dogmatic teaching of new "truths" instead of the old ones.

Modern societies there are which have used or are now using the schools in achieving the form of social behaviors and faiths and spirit which the leaders have favored. Prewar Prussia is the classic example which has been followed by Japan, Russia, Italy, and other centralized nations dominated by powerful minority groups. A true perspective may, nevertheless, disclose a more subtle, sometimes unconscious, but real and effective, use of the schools of Great Britain, Denmark, and the United States in bringing

about present social, intellectual, political, and economic conditions.

It was not by chance that the English of 1830 educated their "new masters" by admitting the sons of powerful bourgeoisie into Eton and Rugby and the other public schools, thereby transforming them into young aristocrats supporting the *status quo* more valiantly than the fox-hunting nobility themselves did. The Danish folk high school may seem a purely indigenous institution, but an acquaintance with its beginnings discloses that it was planned long in advance by Grundtvig and his associates and that it depended on the patriotic resurgence following national despair for its extension after 1864. The dominance of American schools and colleges by means of pressure groups—religious sects, political parties, economic groups—has resulted in the caution and futility that have characterized our educational institutions.

Nevertheless, it is as easy to overestimate as it is to underestimate the potentialities of the school to perpetuate social inertia or to build a new social order. Indeed, even in Russia, the practices of which have inspired our American planners to demand a curriculum of social indoctrination, the communist leaders emphatically *do not support* the thesis "that an existing society can be changed through the school." They recognize that the school cannot be independent of its environment. They, therefore, start by making "contemporary life the starting point in their effort to build up a communistic ideology for . . . the youth."¹

In America, the function of the school in relation to the emerging social structure is not less important than in Russia. As in Russia, however, the fulfillment of its function is promoted by having youths of every age engage in study, observation, discussion, and, especially, active participation in an organized and purposeful way in the life of

¹ Albert P. Pinketvitch, *The New Education in the Soviet Republic* (New York: The John Day Company, 1929), pp. 153-154.

contemporary society. We need a marriage of a vital social study and purposeful student activities—a creatively controlled school. Thus, only, can the school accelerate and safeguard the realization of an emerging active democratic social structure.

P. W. L. C.

The Smiling Social-Study Teacher

The chapter in the civics book which the class was discussing was entitled "Caring for Our Dependents." Some one asked if the unemployed would be considered dependents.

"They certainly are dependent," Mary said. "Why, some of them have to sleep over in Lincoln Park. They haven't any other place."

"Do you think that the city should allow such men to sleep in the park?" asked the teacher with a smile. She was pleased with the interest of the class in a modern problem.

John said that he thought it was all right for men to sleep in the park. It would be just like camping, he thought.

Jane seemed to think it would "look kind of funny to see men lying all over the benches."

The teacher smiled again. The supervisor would see that the children were really interested in vital problems.

A supervisor actually sat through that lesson, but with no smile on her face. Could she make this sweet, smiling, enthusiastic

young woman see that her discussions of social problems are worse than none at all? Could she make her realize that she is encouraging the very attitude of a large mass of American people that stands most in the way of real social progress—a detached and even amused interest?

Perhaps the social-study teacher needs a lesson from the literature teacher. She might learn to present a social problem with the same dramatic seriousness with which the literature teacher would read *In Flanders Fields*. Certainly a discussion of the possibilities of peace might be in key with a serious reading of excerpts from the Yale University student's speech before the disarmament conference—"We have lost interest in being prepared for cannon fodder. . . ."

We present no plea for an emotional solution to our social problems. We ask only a serious consideration of them.

Possible solutions of present problems will probably change before our pupils grow up. Indeed the problems themselves may become of little significance. We cannot *teach* problems or solutions in the same sense as we *teach* dates or grammar or quadratics. But we can habituate in children a serious consideration of social problems. At least we must make every effort to do so. Sweetly smiling and daintily detached young women make such serious consideration of catastrophic problems unlikely if not impossible.

H. H.

Need for New Social-Science Materials

Jesse H. Newlon

EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. Newlon, director of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, is exercising vigorous and challenging leadership as a member of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, and as editor of the *John Day Studies in American Life*.

P. W. L. C.

THE high school can never be the vital force in American life that it should be until the need for adequate social-science materials is recognized and supplied.

Some progress has been made towards the development of a theory of the nature and function of the social studies. Beginning a quarter of a century ago with James Harvey Robinson's essays on *The New History*, there has been built up gradually the idea that the old political, military, chronological history should give way to a study of cultural development and problems in a broad social sense. A few promising texts have appeared. Textbooks in "civics" have broken with conventional practice to a considerable extent, while history is now presented in a broader and somewhat more realistic sense. Here and there a text has been criticized because of its too realistic treatment of economic, social, political, or international matters—a good sign. Any attempt to mention specific authors and texts in this brief paper would, of course, be difficult. The best might easily be overlooked. With a few exceptions, texts in this field are noticeably better than those of a generation ago. They are better organized and illustrated. They give more attention to culture in the broad sense, to social and economic matters, to contemporary social problems. But after all is said that can be said, the statement that the high school is without adequate social materials stands. What textbook affords an adequate picture of American life, either historically or in terms of contemporary problems? As a matter of

fact, the textbook, however good, can never be adequate. Other materials are required. However excellent a text may be, its usefulness is restricted to certain definite purposes. The library is supposed to supply supplementary materials, but it succeeds only up to a point. There is a dearth of suitable material. What is the cause of this situation?

The difficulty is found in the fact that we have not as yet evolved a satisfactory theory of the high school. If the high school is to become in any true sense a positive social force, its curriculum must be focused more upon contemporary culture and contemporary social problems. Most high schools still aim to place the student in possession of a little harmless knowledge about the externals of history. It is evident that the theory implicit in current practice must have a general overhauling. The American high school already enrolls more than half of the population of secondary-school age, and it would seem only a question of time until it enrolls all youth up to eighteen or twenty years of age. Lately we have heard much about attention to individual differences. No one would minimize the importance of the service which the high school can render to the individual as such. It should seek the full development of his capacities and interests. But we need to see the individual in a new light. In America we have thought of the individual as an individual, rather than as a member of society. We are beginning to see how narrow is such a view. The school is concerned not only with the individual but with society. The logic of the events of the industrial revolution and the developments of the last three decades, culminating in the great depression, are forcing a reconsideration of the relation of the school to social change and social evolution. Education in

America is just awakening to its larger social responsibilities.

Americans today are bewildered. They are unable to interpret the depression. They are unable to formulate a vigorous and constructive national policy with reference to economic issues. They are unable to cope effectively with the problems of the political state. Government seems to be breaking under the strain of a highly complex industrial society. We seem powerless in the presence of political ineptitude, inefficiency, and even corruption. Our troubles are many, not only with respect to economics and politics, but in other areas—social, moral, aesthetic. The plain truth is that we are living in a period of sharp cultural transformation. We must reconstruct life, and for this task of reconstruction social understanding is required. It is here that we find the greatest and most difficult task of secondary education.

If the high school is to enable youth to study intelligently the problems of American civilization, suitable social-science materials must be provided. These materials will doubtless take various forms, but it seems perfectly clear to me that one type is especially demanded at the present time. There is need for brief treatises on numerous subjects. I have in mind small books or monographs running from fifteen to forty thousand words, sometimes shorter brochures, each treating a single movement, process, trend, or problem authoritatively and interestingly. What topics should be thus treated?—They are manifold. You will discover many of them by going through the major topics treated in the most progressive social-science courses in the American school and college. The type of material which I am advocating would not supplant the longer, more comprehensive treatise, but would supplement it and would stimulate American youth to think more deeply on the problems of our time by affording an abundance of factual and interpretative material that would supply data for thinking. The topics to be treated are almost innumerable.

For example, the whole field of aesthetics, especially its social implications and present status in America, is woefully neglected by the secondary school. There might be a whole series of monographs in this field, dealing with literature, architecture, painting, city planning, and what not. In the field of international relations are such topics as debts, reparations, the League of Nations, tariffs, and many others. The realms of industry and economics fairly bristle with problems demanding treatment—banking, money, unemployment, agricultural relief, planning, and many others. As this is written, New York City is wrestling with the problem of reconstructing its system of government. There is available today no illuminating treatise on municipal government written especially to meet the needs of the American high-school student. The problem of reconstructing city government receives only very sketchy consideration in the best of texts. The high-school library can obtain in the social studies only the more elaborate treatises on highly specialized and technical studies written by specialists primarily for mature minds.

Why should we not make available to the students of the upper years of the high school and the junior college a whole series of such books that treat authoritatively and interestingly salient aspects of American life? Each of these books should be written by a competent scholar. It should present a reliable body of factual material. It should have a distinctly forward-looking, definite, social outlook. It should be critical of, but at the same time sympathetic with, our American heritage—not merely destructive. There are many periods, movements, and problems of history that could well be illuminated for our youth by such treatises.

In education, the best theories are dependent upon materials. Within the next year or so the reports of the American Historical Association Commission on the Social Studies will be appearing. These volumes will doubtless conceive of the social studies in a broad and forward-looking way.

Social Studies in a Confused World

John A. Hockett

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Hockett, of the University of California, whose Social Problems of American Life has been of such fundamental help to curriculum makers for the past six years or more, emphasizes in this article some of the significant problems that social-study teachers must recognize and deal with more intelligently and adequately than we have in the past.* P. W. L. C.

THE individual who would not fix his roof in the rain and who saw no need to mend it in fair weather must have been a teacher. At least many of us as social-studies teachers must admit that we were insufficiently critical of our social responsibilities until the foul weather of depression years forced them to our attention. It is now painfully obvious that we do not have in America an understanding, intelligent citizenship competent to deal with the economic, political, racial, and international conditions and problems that confront us with ominous threat. Neither the school nor any other agency has clearly recognized and met the need. Our western, mechanical, industrial, acquisitive society is sick—critically sick in body and in spirit. The depression is merely a symptom, a fever, indicating that serious maladjustments exist throughout the organism. The problem is not primarily to pull out of the depression—to bring down the fever—but to diagnose and remedy the fundamental causes of the difficulty.

The depression will by no means be all loss if it stimulates, challenges, *forces* teachers of social studies to recognize the obligations of the trust they hold. Dewey has truly charged that at the present time education has no great directive aim. The old individualistic purpose "has lost its vitality and its meaning. It survives, but operates as any oppressive handicap." Yet, how unthinkable that the school should lack a vital, challenging purpose when the society it is charged

to safeguard lies mortally ill from the poisons of its own metabolism. What greater privilege could any man or woman ask than the opportunity of revealing to young people the vision of "the great American dream"—the possibility of a life of poise and balance and sanity, of security and satisfaction, of work and play and growth for every man, woman, and child? What greater purpose than to kindle lifelong zeal for the accomplishment of this magnificent ideal? This is the opportunity of every teacher, pre-eminently of the teacher of social studies. We possess the means for building an actual Utopia surpassing the most extravagant dreams. Two obstacles stand in the way. Two obstacles that cause, instead, undeserved poverty and hunger, demoralizing insecurity and anxiety, baffling frustration, unhappiness and despair. Two obstacles that only education can remove. Two obstacles: ignorance and selfishness. We must, somehow, by all means at our disposal, replace civic and economic illiteracy with understanding. We must with equal vigor and effectiveness substitute the social motive for the outworn, destructive individualism of the past. This is the challenge to social-studies teachers. To ignore or evade the challenge is nothing short of criminal negligence.

If this discussion were a sermon, the text would be C. A. Beard's recent statement that "Competence in the individual, not dogma, is our supreme objective." Would that every teacher could keep before her continually the goal of *competence in the individual*. There is no short cut to social progress or to educational effectiveness; there is no panacea, no nostrum, no scheme, no "ism." There is no substitute for enlightened intelligence. Competence in the individual, social and civic competence, is the only antitoxin.

Competence like charity begins at home. As teachers we must first overcome our own civic indifference and ignorance. The blind cannot lead the blind. Nor can we help the rising generation find its way out of the morass of a machine civilization unless we are citizens of the actual, here-and-now, twentieth-century world. The writer's psychological "low" of the depression occurred recently at the time of a local election. It was an important election for all citizens, especially so for teachers. At the request of a committee concerned with getting out the vote, he called upon a neighboring teacher to remind her of the importance of taking part and to offer transportation to the polling place. Not only did he find her entirely uninformed and indifferent to this bare minimum of civic responsibility, but she seemed actually annoyed that he had come across the street, in a neighborly manner, on this simple mission. Fortunately such teachers are not typical; despair would, otherwise, be justified. Much, however, remains to be done in order to overcome the inadequacies of our earlier civic training. Who can estimate the results that might ensue if the social-studies teachers of America should take the lead in identifying themselves with the social trends and movements of the day; if they sought earnestly to understand that they might interpret to youth the world we live in. There is no more thrilling adventure! Several avenues of approach lie open.

There is need for participation and leadership in discussion groups, informal and formal, within the profession and without. Our times call for much of this type of group thinking and the resulting adult education. Never before has there been such a widespread state of readiness for guidance and enlightenment. A second need is greater participation by teachers, as intelligent and well-disposed citizens, in the activities of the various civic organizations that at present battle so valiantly to uphold and maintain the true values of democracy and humanity against the terrific attacks of in-

trenched selfishness and greed, blindly supported by ignorance and indifference. These groups need our active assistance no less than we need their loyal support. The ravages of the depression were required to awaken us to this mutual need. A third source of enlightenment and inspiration is contact, through books, with the finest minds of our times. The possibilities of a magazine article are limited indeed. If the writer could accomplish but one thing, it would be to interest teachers in reading Glenn Frank's *Thunder and Dawn*, William H. Kilpatrick's *Education and the Social Crisis*, and George S. Counts's *Dare the School Build a New Social Order?* There are other penetrating analyses, of course. But begin with these. Don't read them, merely; study them thoughtfully.

Dare the school build a new social order? Can the school build a new social order? Can the school aid in rehabilitating the present order? It matters not how the question is asked, the answer lies in building competence in the individual; first, competence in ourselves; second, competence in our pupils.

Granted a teacher with social insight and zeal, what specific things can be done in the daily work of the classroom? In spite of handicaps, much can be done in every situation. A large amount of social-studies content deals with the remote in time and space. Such is undoubtedly necessary to give perspective for understanding our own present situation. Yet how often are the distant and the remote taught without perceptible relationship to the here and now. With the desperate need for a realistic understanding of the present, we cannot justify teaching that fails to contribute to this primary aim. It is not a question of ignoring the lessons of the past or of failing to study processes of development, but rather of putting first things first and utilizing to the maximum the resources for understanding the present that are available in any and all content.

Method is of equal, if not greater, importance than content. If competence in the

indi
abil
to s
evi
thou
P
buil
in a
pres
all.
Pers
excl
clash
Fals
prop
to ou
help,
losop
worl
tween
How,
and a
mora
need
closed
with
the so
ideals
to wh
tion. I
school
things
can pe
But
roman
purpos
machin
simple
not es
vidual
the wo
monize

individual is the goal, we must stress the ability to perceive relationships and trends, to sense problems, to collect and evaluate evidence, and to arrive at justifiable, even though tentative, conclusions.

Possibly our greatest opportunity is to build morale in children. Young people live in a confused and confusing world. The present is an age of strain and distraction for all. Paradoxes and conflicts confound us. Personalities are pulled asunder by mutually exclusive allegiances. Ideals and expediency clash. Standards change before our eyes. Falsehood wears the mask of truth. False prophets through deception make us parties to our own exploitation. How, without our help, can young people build a satisfying philosophy of life for this complex and changing world? How else can they distinguish between fundamental and superficial values? How, otherwise, can they acquire courage and avoid cynicism? If ever children needed moral and spiritual guidance it is now. They need to see a way out, when all doors seem closed before them. They need perspective with which to evaluate the wholesome and the sordid in every realm of life. They need ideals and purposes, larger than themselves, to which they can give allegiance and devotion. If social studies, the vital core of the school's program, deals not with these things, then indeed is the faith of the American people in education betrayed.

But idealism must be realistic and not romantic. Both individualistic and social purposes must rest upon acceptance of the machine age. We cannot go back to the simpler economy of earlier ages. We cannot escape like Robinson Crusoes to individual havens of refuge. We can only study the world as it is and set up goals that harmonize with the possibilities. In other words,

our aim must be to control the machine in the interests of humanity, for we can neither escape nor destroy it. We must "be ourselves," and "face reality" in the search for the values of life as well as in the choice of means by which we seek to achieve values.

One further suggestion, implied above, merits emphasis. The confusion of the present situation is worse confounded by the widespread use of propaganda on the part of numerous groups to achieve selfish purposes. If as H. G. Wells so cogently said, "We witness a race between education and catastrophe," it is equally true that education is in mortal combat with propaganda. This sinister force is so all-pervasive, so subtle, so ingratiating that few people as yet are aware of the tremendous dangers inherent in its use. The individual cannot escape its influence. The social-studies program of the school dare not, therefore, ignore its existence. Since the disease cannot be eradicated, a resistance to its influence must be developed. Year after year must we practise children in detecting the symptoms and resisting the appeal of partisan propaganda, until finally they become as skillful in this as the promoters are in disguising and presenting their material. The colored lights of every partisan interest must be skillfully fused together to achieve the white light of truth.

The present troubled times present an unusual opportunity to social-studies teachers. It is no time for complacency. It is no time to live in a house by the side of the road, playing the rôle of innocent bystander. It is no time to leave "the responsibility. . . to other well-tried(?) agencies." The times call for leadership. Social-studies teachers must not, and let us predict will not, ignore the challenge.

The Bonus Expeditionary Forces

Eber Jeffery

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Eber Jeffery is a member of the history department of the Jersey City State Normal School. He presents in this article a penetrating analysis of several significant aspects of an amazing and much misunderstood social phenomenon of the depression. He suggests the importance of such problems for social-studies classes.*

P. W. L. C.

A GOOD unit of study for social-science classes provides elements of fascinating interest, clearly reveals social forces in actual operation, is broad enough in scope to be worthy of intensive study, and "leads on" indeterminately to further inquiry. It seems to me that, as a distinctive social phenomenon, the bonus army, which gathered at Washington the summer of 1932, fulfills these requirements for a unit in social science. In a period characterized by rapid expansion of social and economic consciousness, students may well give some attention to the forces and precedents which brought about the organization of this body of individuals, from widely differing strata of society and from points widely scattered over the United States, and concentrated them in a miserable camp on the flat, sun-baked bottomland of Anacostia Park.

During the first two weeks of July the writer visited the various camps where the bonus marchers were quartered, mingled with the men and sought by conversations with several hundred of them to discover something of the spirit and the general frame of mind of the members of the largest body of lobbyists that ever descended on the national capital. The answers of three hundred and fifty veterans to four questions appropriate to this purpose are discussed in this article. The responses are thought to be a fair sample of the encamped veterans' reactions. Replies were obtained in a casual manner, through wholly informal inter-

views, with no hint of the questionnaire or "study" spirit. All replies recorded were from "privates" of the bonus army. This method probably secured a fairer reflection of the attitude of the members of the "army" than the hurried reports of newspaper men or descriptions by feature writers of colorful persons in the camps.

The mobilization was accomplished without funds and without the services of previously recognized officials. This "army" was transported an enormous number of man-miles in the aggregate, was billeted in a cantonment in which sustenance and shelter were provided for many thousands of men and women for a period of ten weeks. At the time of eviction living quarters and camp equipment were being improved daily.

First among the factors bringing these men together were of course poverty and want. The bonus army was one of the striking social occurrences which accompanied the big slump. The men were penniless and discouraged. In answering the question, "How long has it been since you last had work for pay?" 307 of the 350, or 88 per cent, indicated that 10 months or more had passed without employment. The mean was 14 months.

"Don't you think it unfair to demand hundreds of millions of dollars from the Government when it cannot meet daily expenses from present taxes?"

"Aw nertz!"

"Wasn't it unfair to take me from a good job in 1917?"

"They can afford it if they want to."

"Plenty of millionaires yet, ain't they?"

"How about the R. F. C.?"

"What the hell *are* we going to do?"

"Plenty of dough for the Refinancing Organization."

"Now is the time to pay us. When every-

body and the government is prosperous we won't need it."

Little evidence was found that the men had given thought to the processes by which the bonus money could be raised or had attempted to analyze possible economic results. A few insisted that business would improve and the boom start with the payment of the bonus. Others felt that it was now or never, since half the face value of the adjusted compensation certificates had already been borrowed and the balance would be almost consumed by interest before maturity in 1945.

A very noticeable attitude of perplexed weariness on the part of many of the marchers impressed itself on the observer. Many had evidently turned to the bonus army as a last resort, all other means of obtaining a livelihood having failed. The glamour of the national capital as a place of abode while conducting a spectacular lobby doubtless attracted hundreds who might otherwise have continued their efforts in less diverting places. Organized begging (as the bonus movement has been often termed) at Washington was preferable for the veteran, to a drab existence in the New York "flop houses," or hanging around the small, mid-western home town, down and out, a ward of organized charity. A social-studies class will note the satisfaction in mere gregariousness as an influence in gathering these veterans together where the increased number of human contacts, where rivalry in building the most suitable habitations and where the amusement of constructing burlesque banks and fashioning gravestones for unpopular senators formed more interesting pastimes than dodging policemen and otherwise following the monotonous life of the city vagrant.

For the down-and-outer who had seen war service and for whom the usual means of support were gone, the army certificate of discharge remained the one document on which he could have the slightest hope of raising money. His trade or vocation, if he

had one, was useless. His school diploma was an object of derision. He could collect nothing on his ambition or willingness to work, if he happened to possess such attributes. But with the discharge he could turn to this organization and be admitted to an assemblage of his fellows in the same predicament. Joining the bonus army was at least *something* to do. Whether or not such action was ethically justifiable, it probably resulted from social and psychological influences for which the veterans can scarcely be held individually responsible.

In examining relationships between war veterans and their government, students can be brought to face the oft-discussed question of the citizen-state relation. What, actually and in theory, are the citizen's motives for giving military service in time of war? Is he obligated to render military service to the state for protection of the state in return for the state's guardianship of society? Should a willingness for military service spring from an emotional patriotism which impels the utmost in sacrifice for "the land of mine own people" regardless of mutual benefits? Why does the national government assume the right of conscription with little respect for individual opinion? By requiring or accepting military service is the state placed under obligation to provide for its war veterans? Or, has such obligation, if any, already been fulfilled by extending to the individual the privileges of citizenship? Has society evolved a dual set of obligations for the state and citizen, one for war and one for peace? Should the government consider service from voluntary enlistment a more worthy effort than conscripted service and reward the volunteers more richly? Would such procedure destroy the patriotic sentiment it attempts to reward? What is the further obligation of the Federal Government to provide a suitable organization and physical equipment to make use of the manpower accepted and conscripted in wartime emergency? What, if any, are the proper peace-time uses of the army and navy? What

are the peculiar advantages of the military type of organization? A discussion of these and other related questions might serve to clarify considerable muddled thinking on the subject of military service.

The bonus expeditionary movement was encouraged by our system of electing representatives to the National Congress. A group of veterans demands payment. Representatives, anxious to hold their jobs, support the bonus bill, hoping for the soldier vote. This support encourages other veterans to join in the bonus demand, which action in turn influences a still larger number of Congressmen. Students will note how a large part of our national legislation results from the demands of blocks of voters with special interests, who are determined to "get something out of" the National Government. The long history of pension legislation contains plenty of precedents for current demands.

Political mechanics which lends itself to the realization of block demands was supplemented by energetic leadership as a potent force in the Bonus Expeditionary Force, leadership with artificial prestige, which held the objective definitely in view and drove towards it with surprising vigor. Skilled leadership was very evident in the system with which the tatterdemalion camps were laid out and the adroitness with which the sympathy of the populace was enlisted. Popular sympathy was vital to the enterprise, sympathy sufficient to induce donations of food, clothing, and gasoline.

Sources of such supplies were found in a variety of ways. Appeals to the townspeople of various communities represented in the camps were repaid by occasional truck loads of canned goods and vegetables. A few professional welfare workers, impressed by the plight of the destitute veterans, assisted in sending in quantities of meat and potatoes. Barrels in the Washington grocery stores labeled "For the Bonus Army" served as receptacles for an occasional can of beans contributed by generous shoppers. Dilapi-

dated motor vehicles touring all highways leading to the District of Columbia solicited provisions from the public. Often curious visitors to the camps were moved to send out old shoes, stoves, bedding, phonographs, and babies' supplies. In general, appearances seemed to indicate that living in indigence in an organized camp was a more pleasurable means of subsisting on charity than the methods used by our modern army of hitchhiking nomads. Encamped a mile from the capital of the world's richest nation in an indescribable array of hovels, varying from two sticks and a burlap bag to neat squad tents and the attractive stucco bungalow provided by a sympathetic building contractor, this motley aggregation of war veterans represented social maladjustment startling indeed to thoughtful observers.

One peculiarity of the patriotic feeling of the bonus army was the pronounced aversion to radicalism represented by the "reds." Here was a group exerting all possible pressure for the extraction of a large sum of money from the Federal Government at a time when that Government was experiencing most serious financial difficulties. Cabinet members and the President were ridiculed and their names held up to disdain by the assembled veterans. Yet the one bogey term sure to set the bonus marchers aglow with righteous wrath was the word "red." It seems odd that this group, bent on securing fulfillment of their own demands, should look upon the "reds" as contemptible creatures who were about to perpetrate some horrible catastrophe on the nation to which the Bonus Expeditionary Force veteran was proudly devoted. "Are you against admitting 'reds' or radicals to this camp?" Replies to this question showed the definite stand against radicalism.

Pugnacious affirmative	196
Affirmative	91
Noncommittal or failed to understand 37	
No	26
Total	350

An attempt to ascertain whether any considerable number of the veterans held definite notions as to what the principles or the philosophy of a "red" might be was entirely unsuccessful. At any rate the antipathy of the bonus marchers for "reds" was matched only by the strange desire of some of the radicals to attach themselves to a body professing such enthusiastic patriotism.

Another remarkable feature of the situation was the restraint, the subdued calmness of the veterans, throughout the encampment. The absence of confusion and rioting was the subject of widespread press comment after every demonstration. Reserve and orderly procedure are not usual characteristics of a hungry mob. Preservation of order was doubtless aided by previous military training, which had induced habits of camp life and respect for authority easily re-assumed by the men when gathered again *en masse*, and by a bewildered spirit of submission to unpleasant circumstances. Capable leadership, also, must have been partly responsible for such conduct. Most significant of the influences for decent order was perhaps the realization that the objective was impossible of attainment unless the public and legislators were impressed with the idea that the bonus marchers represented a deserving class of people. The American mania for system had not yet been replaced by recklessness and violence.

Did these veterans actually believe that their efforts would result in immediate payment? To the question, "Do you think Congress will pass the bonus bill while you are here?" 160 (46 per cent) answered, "Yes"; 77 (22 per cent) said, "I don't know"; and 113 (32 per cent) gave evasive or indefinite answers.

In spite of the prevailing opposition of

the press to payment of the bonus, public sympathy was greatly stimulated by expulsion of the Bonus Expeditionary Forces from the capital. Political and social troubles were not cured by the breaking up of the camps, but the discomfiting spectacle of distress was removed from the District of Columbia and alleged dangers of epidemics of disease were avoided. When approached on the subject of spreading disease in Washington, many of the marchers simply replied, "Well, how about *our* health and welfare?"

A questionable effort at soothing public feeling was made in attempts to discredit the Bonus Expeditionary Force by a number of high officials who stated that a large number of men had criminal records. One would naturally expect to find a smaller percentage of criminals among more prosperous and satisfied classes. But, suppose the bonus marchers all had been criminals? Such a circumstance would have constituted evidence of an even more dangerous social situation and would have been a serious reflection on the effectiveness of our social institutions.

The administrator and legislator face a series of dilemmas in their efforts to quiet popular clamor and at the same time work out sound solutions of vexing problems. The candidate for public office cannot inaugurate sensible reforms if he fails of election. How can he secure the office if he ignores powerful, selfish groups? The important process of getting elected is an essential that critics appear often to forget. The student of government will watch with interest our progress, or lack of it, towards a system of representation that can "promote the general welfare" and at the same time offer sufficient satisfaction to special interests to maintain congressional security.

Energy: Hope of a Cultural Democracy

G. V. Bruce

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Our social studies must obviously reflect an industrial society. Mr. Bruce, who is a member of the department of science teaching of New York University School of Education, has clearly set forth the potential relationships between scientific-industrial and civic-cultural degradation or emancipation.*

P. W. L. C.

WHEN we note the widespread idling of our energy converters and then see the many contemporary signs of our social structure slipping back to a state of human serfdom and cultural decadence, we are led directly to the inference of causal relationship. We have heard the machine condemned and praised almost in the same breath. At one moment it is pronounced a plague invading the world and threatening to undermine the ancient cultures. It is charged with repudiation of cultural values and a spirit of sordid materialism. In the next moment it is lauded as the great hope of a new humanism that will outshine the most utopian of the ancient dreams for a good and happy state. Somewhere between these two extremes society is seeking a point of view that will rejuvenate a world that seems to be growing suddenly old. The place of the power generator in the quest for cultural freedom is the question we are seeking to answer. For the need of an answer the course of human progress is blocked. The ancient authorities can furnish no answer. History can shed but little light. The road seems to be an unblazed trail.

The verdict of history decrees that men must be liberated from the burdens of dreary toil before they can be free to cultivate their finer powers. In the past this privilege was limited to certain peoples who, through the subjugation of masses of human beings, under systems of slavery, were able to evolve rich cultures which have stood without rival as standards of refinement to

the present day. Later, when man began to subjugate animals for energy transformation, first for hauling loads and then for powering machines, the individual human was enabled to extend his control over larger physical and intellectual domains. The power of a single horse, when intelligently and usefully directed, placed at the command of the individual the equivalent of twenty human slaves. He was thereby comparatively free with his superior brain to lift himself above the status of the beast. Human life assumed new meaning and new values and the time for political democracy was then at hand.

Parallel with the struggle for political freedom has gone the struggle for release from the rigors of dreary toil. This quest for physical leisure has moved steadily on to our present control of vast sources of natural energy where a few hours of labor by one member of the family can maintain the whole group in a state of comparative leisure, with physical and aesthetic comforts superior to those available to the royal masters of slaves. The suddenness of this prodigious conversion of natural energy has thrust upon society a multiplicity of conflicting issues probably without equal in any other stage of human history. We hear of the conflict of science and religion, the classes and the masses, conservatism and progressivism, individualism and collectivism, without end. Systems suddenly become obsolete and defunct and people grope about in a state of bewilderment seeking a point of view. In the meantime, our power plants are idle and we are reverting to a state of cultural decadence.

A brief review of two or three of the great moments in the mastery of natural energy may help reveal its bearings on the pursuit of cultural democracy and may shed

some light on the meaning of the present debacle that has overtaken the endeavor.

It truly started only a century and a half ago when the great concept of "the conservation of energy" began to take shape in men's minds. It was discovered that energy could be transformed from heat to mechanical to electrical manifestations, and that these were, truly, only different forms of the same thing. Joly remarked to Robert Mayer, with dubious implications, one day a little more than a century ago, while discussing the latter's notion of thermodynamics, "If what you say is true, you should be able to heat water by shaking it." Mayer left Joly without a word of reply and several days later rushed back into his presence with blanched face, exclaiming, "It can be done! It can be done! Shake a pound of water in an ideal thermos bottle until 778 foot pounds of work have been performed upon it and the water will become one degree hotter." By this performance 778 foot pounds of physical energy are transformed into its equivalent, one British thermal unit of heat energy. It was when man learned to reverse this process and use heat to turn wheels and perform physical work that every pound of coal, 15,000 B.T.U., suddenly became a veritable giant in the service of man, equivalent to 353 human slaves working under the lash for ten hours.

In a similar way each ton of water that flows down our streams is a potential source of wealth and culture for man. For each foot of vertical flow, this ton is dissipating 2,000 foot pounds of physical energy, convertible into nearly four watt hours of electric energy, an amount nearly sufficient to do the family wash. As rapidly as this is rendered available to man it becomes wealth and elevates him from slave to master.

The greatest impetus to human freedom and cultural progress arose when Michael Faraday demonstrated his newly discovered principle of electromagnetic induction before the Royal Institute of London. The

demonstration was simple and nonspectacular to a degree typical of most natural phenomena in their nonmechanized state. At the close of the demonstration, Mr. Gladstone, who was in the audience, stepped up and asked, "Dr. Faraday, now that you have found this out, what is its value?" Faraday replied, "Who knows but some day you may be able to tax it?" The prophetic implication of this reply is prodigiously borne out by the present tax returns of the electrical industry.

Faraday revealed for the first time that the British thermal unit and the foot pound could be transformed into electrical energy, the most usable form for the consuming public. It requires only a wire for delivery as contrasted with pipes, shafts, belts, trucks, etc., for the other forms, and in time even the wire will be abandoned. It is silent in transit and hygienic in use, free from the noises, odors, and waste products of other forms. It is flexible in use. If it is needed in the form of heat for types of service all the way from toasting bread to curling hair, it is necessary only to apply it to the appropriate machine for the desired transformation. If the physical manifestation is desired for dishwashing, face massaging, or forms of painless exercise, etc., the appropriate machine for that transformation is available. This same flexibility obtains throughout the entire range of industry in providing the commodities of life *ad infinitum*. Thus Faraday's discovery extended the unstinted privilege of nature's energy reserves to every member of society.

These efforts of science have placed at the disposal of the American people alone more than one billion horse power, actually installed ready for use. This represents an increase of twelve hundred per cent during the last two decades. This affords more than eight horse power per capita, whereas, if fully utilized, less than two horse power is sufficient to provide the most prodigal needs of a member of our present society. It would manufacture all his clothing and building

materials, perform all the manual tasks of the home, provide his heat, food, light, and other necessities, as well as the luxuries of the present-day wealthy home—and all this with a minimum of human energy. And, at any time the present available supply of energy should prove inadequate to make every member of our society independent of physical toil, science stands ready to supply the deficit. The sun, the ultimate source of all the world's energy, is shedding one and one-half horse power upon every square yard of the earth's surface. The techniques are rapidly evolving for transforming this vast reserve directly into electrical form. If one should choose to be overprovident, every pound of matter in the world possesses subatomic energy equivalent to that derived from the combustion of many thousands of tons of coal. All the batteries of science are now brought to bear upon the atom in an attempt to release this energy.

In spite of the failure yet to utilize these vast and inexhaustible reserves, it is clear that there is now harnessed, with transmission gears, to machines, ready to go, four times as much energy as is necessary to raise every individual in America to a comparative state of leisure and to care for all his physical needs in a prodigal way and permit cultural and intellectual growth for all. But in the midst of this limitless potential wealth we are in the plight of widespread need and misery where millions are denied the humanizing benefits of these vast power reserves.

Our economic profit system decrees that the individual, in order to be eligible to these benefits, must possess dollars. It further decrees that to acquire these dollars he must perform labor on a scale that our automatic machine methods no longer permit, nor should require. This virtually means that he is asked to pay on the costly basis of human labor for goods created by cheap and abundant natural energy.

Natural energy can be transformed at a constantly decreasing cost in terms of human effort. A laborer with his hands can

transform energy at three dollars per horse power. A horse and wagon system is valued at fifteen cents per horse power. Compare these with the gas engine at two cents, and our best steam-engine systems which will yield energy at one-half cent per horse power, and the social implications of a return to the oft-mentioned ox-cart stage should divest the mind of its lingering thoughts of pristine romance.

It is these differences between human energy and mechanical energy that should measure the potential humanizing benefits of science and technology to mankind. This phenomenal conquest of natural power should be marked by an equally phenomenal advance in human culture and liberalized education. It should permit every one to cultivate and express his finer talents in the humanization of life. It should eliminate slums and beautify our cities. It should repair the vandalism of private greed and make the world a finer place for human abode.

Private control under the present profit system has demonstrated its inadequacy. It places the steam engine in competition with human effort and attempts to sell the products of cheap and abundant natural energy at too nearly the value of human energy. Men are thereby forced to commit crime for dollars and to commit suicide for lack of them. Strong vaults and armored cars must be built to protect them. Wars are waged for them. Armies, police forces, courts, prisons, and jails must be maintained to control people's overzealous clamor for them. And most significant of all, people are forced to toil in factories for dollars, and compelled to curtail their cultural enrichment for lack of them.

In conclusion, the unit of energy is the fundamental basis of value. The energy consumption of a society today is a measure of its wealth and culture as it was with the cultures of old. Political liberty does not suffice. Equality of physical leisure and the opportunity of cultural enrichment for all are

the essence of total freedom. These are the inalienable rights promised by the efforts of science and the endemic riches of nature. By what authority, then, can any individual or any corporation claim the right to exploit these natural forces for private gain, and through their greed and incompetence lead the world to its present state of decadence? We cannot permit our power generators to cease to operate for long as we are now doing. For the need of them we are rapidly reverting to the standards of human servitude, with a resultant impoverishment of our

material and cultural wealth. Present methods of regeneration are accompanied by much emotional optimism and may bring some relief, but they savor much of the temporary palliative at best. Not until our generators are started turning for the mutual service of all, rather than for profit for the few, will the potential gifts of science and technology be free, available, and abundant for every one. Dreary toil will then give way to the cultivation of the art of living. Then, and then only, can the goal of total freedom in a democracy of culture be realized.

Is There a Place for Controversy?

William McAndrew

EDITOR'S NOTE: In the following pages, Mr. McAndrew demands that we teachers reassess our jobs and our responsibilities. No man in our times has sounded the challenge more vigorously and more insistently than he. And no other man has been more effective than he in exciting the rest of us to accept the challenges that he has hurled at us. The writer of this note suffered his complacency to be wrecked by William McAndrew in 1908, and he's never been the same man since—referring, of course, to the editor! P. W. L. C.

THE gentle and learned citizen responsible for this number of THE CLEARING HOUSE asks for two thousand words discussing the inquiry: Is there a place for discussion of controversial topics in high-school social science? Any one who knows Philip Cox must realize that this, for him, is what we were taught is a rhetorical question; that is, one whose asker knows the answer, who involves it in the form and manner of the interrogation, and who conveys the impression that any other answer than the one he has in mind is nonsense.

As for me and my house, we are opposed to controversy. We want to be agreeable. A contentious person is not lovable, if he doesn't agree he is disagreeable. The disputatious are quarrelsome, cross-grained, cantankerous. Instinctively I dislike the teacher who in meeting takes a stand opposite to mine. This is especially true if I am a principal and she is a member of the staff.

I am also naturally, opposed to work, to curing anything, to showing a brother the error of his ways, to anything that disturbs the easy running of my program.

You, beloved reader, need not squint at me. You have the same complaint more or less, for have not the wisest observers from Solomon down declared that indolence is in the blood of mankind, *le sommeil des esprits*? The lure the preacher gives to heaven, that he may best incline us towards earning

a place in it, is that it is perpetual rest and peace.

But John Locke, no educator contradicting, insists that the schoolmaster's great task is to exorcise the devil of idleness from the soul of youth. From our own souls too, demands Monsieur Montaigne, who considers that the large amount of less needed things pedagogues do, surrounded by the essentials crying to be done, is a form of busy laziness, *strenua inertia*, and that it is the hardest to cure.

Like it or not, work and controversy must be chosen or discarded on other grounds than your or my distaste for them.

This brings us to consider whether social science has any controversy belonging.

Has it?

Is there any difference of opinion as to whether an inflated currency, a gold standard, a sales tax, a tariff to protect manufacturers, government subsidy to farmers, disfranchisement of Negroes, publication of birth-control information, prohibition of saloons, reform of the jury system, extension of civil-service reform, censorship of books and pictures, Sunday ball games, licensed gambling, government management of utilities, city-manager system, bonus to veterans, doles to unemployed, United States supreme court, Ku Klux Klan, allotment of tax money to Catholic schools, third degree, divorce, free speech, campaign contributions, referendum, initiative, and recall, should be maintained as they are or changed?

CONTROVERSY AND ADVANCE

Is there any instance of important betterment secured by mankind, such as greater rights for women, improvement of working conditions for factory operatives and children, abolition of Negro slavery, extension

of public education, that has come out of controversy?

Is there any better way to secure progress than by discussion of the proposals for it even when these proposals are creating controversy?

If there is, what is it? I'm for that.

All the arbitration proposals I know of, all the world-court recommendations, conferences, domestic and international, are for discussion of controversial matters, are they not?

Should high schools promote discussion of these things?

As one listens to uncontradicted speakers at your educational conventions, he concludes that you believe the boys and girls, on arriving at the age when high schools receive them, have developed the rudimentary tendencies to examine proposals, to compare them and estimate their relative values. These young people, you tell us, need training to think. What should they mostly think about? Geometric and algebraic truths? The grammatical relation of Latin or French or other words to each other? The desirabilities or disadvantages of making gowns or buying them? The relative aesthetic values of selected specimens of music, art, and literature? Or is it of more importance that they should think about the present imperfections and future improvements relating to their nation and their world—meaning the people of them?

Come, now, as language teacher, mathematics instructor, vocational counselor, athletic coach, whatever you are, think it out on the broad plane of the whole matter of nation, youth, and a tax-supported education. Forget for a while what your yearbook of the society of teachers of this-or-that puts emphasis on. Ignore what dear old alma mater thinks and as an American deeply concerned with the whole human problem figure out the basic implications involved in taxing everybody to pay you your salary chiefly for what? If you fail to find that it is to promote discussion of

controversial topics in high-school social science, then you have shunted yourself off the historical and legal track laid down for the schools.

The reason for your existence as a teacher in a public school stands out clearly enough to you when you look into the history of public education. Milton and other old exponents of learning put some stress on the need of mitigating the self-centered aspirations of the scholar. They wanted him to be more a benefactor of the rest of mankind. The idea of public education principally for public, not private, benefit, I think you will find, was especially prominent here during the fifty years from 1787 to 1837.

SCHOOLS FOUNDED ON CONTROVERSY

As you know, almost everybody of note in our country, after the adoption of the Constitution saved us from the collapse towards which we were headed after the peace with our former master, saw and urged that the most likely way to preserve the Union, maintain and improve democracy, was to set up a system of universal education aimed particularly and especially at the knowledge of government, justice, defense, union, order, liberty, and general welfare. They said this knowledge must be vitalized by a determination to take responsibility for the specified desirables. To know social-civic-political principles and to hold the nation to them was the specific aim for an American educational system held by most of the statesmen who established the Republic. Dr. Allen Oscar Hansen, seven years ago, did a great service in publishing¹ a summary of the proposals of eminent Americans before 1800. He unearthed from the libraries of old historical societies the pamphlets of the post-revolutionary period arguing for schools at public expense.

Twenty years ago, Mr. Henry R. Evans of the United States Bureau of Education

¹ *Liberalism and American Education in the Eighteenth Century* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1926), xxv + 317 pages.

completed a search through the writings of eminent Americans from Franklin to Roosevelt and printed their beliefs appertaining to the obligations of schools to make good democracy possible.² In all of these proposals, from which eventually came the school laws which in every State make your position paid for by the population regardless of who has children, the two ideas of intelligent understanding of politics and the inculcation of intent to perform civic duties are emphasized. Franklin, Washington, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Rush, Chipman, Sullivan, Noah Webster, and scores of other leaders repeat and elaborate these two ideas. Washington's wording of the aim to be set by public education is familiar enough; Irving says Hamilton wrote it for him. If so it is doubly important. "As we have a government that must get its force from public opinion, it is necessary that public opinion be enlightened. Promote therefore as of primary importance the diffusion of knowledge among all the people."

This is the idea of schools at public expense that brought us the school-tax laws adopted by all the American commonwealths.

Now, I ask you, for you are deeply implicated in this, what kind of knowledge was meant that was to be diffused among all the people, a matter of primary importance in order that public opinion on which the success of government depends may be enlightened? Is it the knowledge obtained from your teaching of Latin, algebra, geometry, bookkeeping, literature, language, domestic studies, vocations, music, art, athletics, extracurriculars, history, civics, or what? I don't meant to be impertinent; quite the contrary, direct pertinence is my aim. What is the voltage of your teachings as putting into your children that enlightened opinion which makes democratic government a suc-

cess? If you or your subject are not giving so much of this result as another subject or another teacher will do, what valid reason is there why I who have no children in school should be taxed to pay for such a subject or such a teacher?

POLITICS MUST GO TO SCHOOL

As said before, knowledge producing political enlightenment was not considered enough. The product of the public schools must be an active promoter of improved democracy. Jefferson's way of putting it expresses the expectation of all the early advocates of tax-supported schools. "You must teach youth what is going on in government, now, today, and imbue every one with the intention of making his part of it go on right."

Besides being intensely interesting, all of this is stiffened by a logic that I have never heard controverted: You have a system of living together that depends on intelligent public opinion. You can get youth together when it is at the age for forming opinion. You can direct his thoughts towards the needs of our united living: civics, politics, economics, social science. You can devote yourself to developing in him a determination to improve our political workings.

Hardly any one would deny that the worthies of 1787-1837 had the right to engage in controversial campaigns to get their logical scheme adopted in place of the education that had been developed hitherto. If you and I had been involved, we could, as hundreds of teachers did, have opposed the plan to supplant the established classics, mathematics, and all, by the absurd attempts to make justice, defense, liberty, union, welfare, and politics the main core of education. But when the advocates of education for training in political knowledge and in political responsibilities got their laws passed, as they did eventually in all the parts of the United States, you and every teacher who accepts wages are obligated to view the public school as an institution

² *Expressions on Education by American Statesmen and Publicists*. United States Bureau of Education, 1913, Bulletin No. 28, 39 pages.

legally and financially bound to make politics, economics, coöperating government its preponderating concern.

Tradition has an awful grip on you. You believe that culture, preparation for college, worthy home membership, and a lot of different objectives are of more importance than politics or at least as much. The acquisition of such knowledge, as is necessary for intelligent opinion on public affairs, could hardly require less than a period every morning and a period every afternoon for four years. No sooner do you get a program like this running than you find a wealth of untouched interesting things appertaining to citizenship crying to get in. Why not? To train in citizenship is the only defensible thing if you take pay from taxes imposed on persons who have no children. There's no just reason for taxing me that my neighbor's children may study pageantry and quadratic equation. Unless you are preponderatingly training these high-school graduates for public service, serving me and everybody by taking responsibility for honest government, you are a grafter if you take pay from us nonparents for putting other people's children through six years of experience mostly ministering to their selfish desires for having a good time and advancing themselves. You are subjecting me to taxation without representation.

EDUCATIONAL SINNERS

You cannot charge me with abusing you. I am guilty of the same sort of high-school teaching. Fed on the mental-discipline doctrine preached by eminent educators in my youth, I used the precious years of boys and girls for pottering with the scholastic antiques passed down from prerevolutionary days. I preached and believed that a sharpening of mind would be secured by this academic stuff that would enable the recipients to become thinking leaders. What have they thought about? Into what have they led the country? In every place I have lived the real steerers and leaders of democ-

racy have not been the output of high schools but unprincipled spoilsmen "working for their own pockets all the time."

It strikes me that this is the day to restore high schooling to the service the founders of the public schools promised when they made them a tax on the whole public, as a body, and not on parents as such.

The problems to be settled by men and women who are children now in your care are and will be the cause of controversy. They are vivified by discussion. High school is the place for it. The creation of your position and the source of your pay demand that you make this your main business.

The inability of the present products of education to tackle social-civic-economic problems, the hopelessness of it as viewed by such respectables as Owen Young, Chief Justice Hughes, President Butler, Judge Seabury, and a galaxy of educational stars, need not discourage you. Quite the contrary. What ever you do in this direction must make things better, and out of your millions of youth turn some towards saving a decaying democracy.

The Spartan youth, the humble Christians who overthrew the bloody cruelty of Rome, the Swiss mountaineers who built an efficient Commonwealth, the Jesuit missionaries, who pioneered civilization into the American wilderness, the later patriots who nipped slavery and disunion here, were taught by teachers no more intelligent than you. It can be done. This magazine abounds with essays telling how. Did you notice in Mr. C. L. Cushman's significant reporting of what high-school boys and girls think of their education the remark of Elinor? "I think it should be changed so that we would discuss more." And Cushman, summing up the whole business, asks the rhetorical question, "Are we making good in training for citizenship?" There you are. What are you there for? Don't you represent the most likely force for purifying civic life? What are you waiting for? Surely you are not afraid. Maybe laziness has you.

Dealing with Controversial Topics

A. C. Krey

EDITOR'S NOTE: *As all the alert teachers of social studies know, Professor Krey of the University of Minnesota is chairman of the Commission for the Investigation of the Social Studies in the School. This Commission has published, or will shortly publish, through Charles Scribner's Sons, fifteen volumes beginning with Beard's Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools and ending with the Recommendations of the Commission. In this article Dr. Krey presents a temperate and very useful statement of desirable class procedures in dealing with controversial questions.*

P. W. L. C.

THIS question is asked in all seriousness and yet, on reflection, one wonders whether it is a proper question. All social science deals with controversial questions. Every social institution has its proponents and opponents; every social change has involved more or less controversy. There are at least two points of view in regard to every public issue, and every policy encounters more or less opposition in some stage of its development. Whether the question is of church or state, of tariff or political procedure, of justice or charity, capital or labor, styles in clothes or manners, it has encountered, or does encounter, differences of opinion. In other words, every topic in social science has been or is a controversial issue of some degree. Social science without controversial issues is inconceivable. It might almost be said that social science equals controversial topics, or, no controversial topics, no social science. As stated, therefore, the question of this paper seems to imply a contradiction in terms which is fundamentally paradoxical. I take it that something more fundamental is meant by the question proposed.

Perhaps those who ask the question are really concerned about something else, another problem, which may be better stated, *How shall the teacher deal with the con-*

troversial issues? Any one who, like the writer, has been long concerned with the training of teachers will admit the reality of this question—and its importance. He has seen prospective teachers of whom he expected unqualified success reappear a year or less later seeking another position or so discouraged by their failure that they have decided to give up teaching as a career. Inquiry has usually revealed the fact that their main fault was an imperfect handling of some controversial question which set the pupils and their parents into such an uproar that the administrator found it easier to retire the teacher than to attempt to correct the error. Usually the more able of such teachers have recovered their poise in the next situation, having learned much from he untoward experience, and have ultimately attained the success which had been predicted for them. Occasionally, though rarely, one of these hopefuls has managed to get into the same sort of difficulty in place after place until the sponsor is reluctantly forced to the conclusion that this particular individual cannot be trusted to discuss the weather without arousing a heated argument in class and trouble outside. Such an individual is usually proved, upon inquiry, to have had less ability than his undergraduate record had indicated and in addition is afflicted with some personality defect which had escaped notice. The critical scrutiny of Main Street is more certain to bring to light such defects than the infrequent contacts of a large university campus. Such persons should undoubtedly have been directed into other fields had they been discovered in time. All such cases, whether those of the youngsters who have unwittingly erred through lack of skill or those whose defective personality has rendered them chronically liable to trouble are set down as "fail-

ures." They may appear in an acute form as dismissed from service during the year, but are more often hidden under the general formula of failure of reappointment "for inability to maintain effective discipline." However they appear, these cases are sufficiently numerous to justify the conclusion that the problem of *how* to deal with controversial topics is one of the greatest stumbling blocks in the path of the beginning teacher.

Are we to infer from the experience of these beginners that the teachers who survive the first year unscathed are those who have avoided the more controversial topics? This would seem to be an obvious inference. Before accepting this conclusion, however, it might be well to examine the studies of experienced and able teachers. One such study was made by an administrator and teacher of many years' experience. As a teacher he had done distinguished work, as a supervisor he had visited thousands of classrooms. His special field of interest was in history and the related social sciences. He made a study of over a hundred teachers who had gained sustained reputations as superior teachers respected alike by their pupils, the school authorities, and the community. He found them in communities North and South and visited their classes. The time of his study happened to fall during one of the most heated national political campaigns in our recent history. At the conclusion of his study he attempted to set down the traits which these teachers held in common. Aside from a high level of ability and more than average scholarly interest, he found very few traits that characterized any great proportion of them. The one which he did find true of more than 90 per cent of them was that no matter which course in social science the teachers were engaged upon *nearly every one of them made some use of current controversial issues*, passionate and intense though they were, to illumine or clarify the work of the class. The political campaign of that year involved both politics

and religion, yet these teachers were virtually all of them drawing upon it to make clearer some points in their lessons. And these teachers commanded the general respect of their pupils and community alike. The answer to this study seems inescapably that able, experienced, and wise teachers of the social sciences do not avoid, but actually welcome, controversial issues of the moment as an aid to the teaching of social-science subjects.

The contrast of these two experiences offers a perplexing riddle. Why do experienced, able, and respected teachers do seemingly, deliberately, and with impunity what young teachers do so often at the peril of their positions? Perhaps a brief review of some of the elements in the problem may throw some light upon the question.

We are here concerned with the high school. Few enter it before the age of twelve. Few remain in it after the age of eighteen. It will be three years before even the oldest of them will be recognized by law as having any responsibility in the solution of public questions. For most of these youths the practical conditions of our complex society will postpone the actual discharge of that responsibility for still more years. Most of the pupils of the high school are even more years removed from that direct participation in public affairs. They neither have responsibility, nor do they feel responsible, for public affairs at this period of their lives; nor do they have much knowledge of the issues involved. This does not mean that they are not interested in the questions. If the adult world is much aroused about some question, the high-school pupils are certain to share the emotional excitement. They will take sides with fervid partisanship. They will repeat slogans and catchwords and be ready to argue for their chosen side with an intolerance and passion the more intense at times as their knowledge is less.

The pupils learn about public questions from many sources—home, church, the community, as well as the school. The outside

agencies are aided in determining the pupils' choice of sides on issues by powerful motives. Life-long experience has taught him that his family and friends are more concerned about his well-being and his self-interest than any other group. The community in which he lives has the dictate of expediency to reinforce its own views. The pale light of learning burns with no such fire and heat as these.

How do questions of current interest, sporadic, spontaneous, and unpredictable, as most of them are, find their way into the classrooms where programs made years before determine the problems to be considered? Alert and thoughtful pupils are certain to recognize in the problems under discussion points of similarity or connection with matters of current interest and ask questions accordingly. Or the teacher may seek to arouse a lethargic class to interest in the day's assignment by calling attention to such similarities or connections. In a somewhat different spirit the pupil who likes to bait the teacher or, in a truculent mood, to embarrass him, usually seizes upon the first opportunity to ask such questions. Not infrequently the unprepared pupil will introduce such questions in the hope of diverting the teacher from the assignment. Whatever the impulse, questions of current interest constantly find their way into the social-science classroom there to mingle helpfully or otherwise with the controversial topics normally considered.

The adolescent pupil, ill-informed but highly opinionated, often inflamed by the excitement of community concern in current controversial issues, is usually ready and eager to turn the classroom into a forum. This situation constitutes part of the normal milieu in which the teacher of the social-science subjects works. How shall the teacher meet these questions? Refuse to consider them? To do so, if the question is pertinent and raised in all sincerity, would be to destroy the pupil's faith in the integrity of the teacher and the usefulness of the course.

On the other hand, to entertain a question injected in a spirit of truculence or for the purpose of distraction would be to forfeit the respect of the majority of the class. Such discrimination may seem to involve unusually fine judgment but the teacher who has early acquired knowledge of his pupils and is ordinarily alert to local conditions has little difficulty in making such judgments. At times some thoroughly earnest pupil raises a question too remote from the work of the class to be efficiently dealt with. In such cases it would seem to be the teacher's duty to explain briefly why the question cannot be considered.

Assuming then that the teacher will entertain questions about current issues which do have pertinence to the topic under consideration and are earnestly and sincerely raised, how will he deal with these questions? The issue may be one for which the teacher has a preferred solution, a decided opinion. Shall the teacher answer the question by offering or urging his own solution?

If the teacher's solution accorded with the majority opinion of the community the consideration of the question would come to an end. If it did not so accord, the pupils would be left with an awkward alternative of appearing to accept or of engaging in an unpleasant controversy whose outcome might have serious consequences to a teacher not endowed with the highest degree of tact. Some will ask, May not the teacher by upholding a view contrary to that of the majority in the community be closer to social justice than that majority? Perhaps so. History records some striking examples. Those teachers, however, dealt directly with the adult world in whose power it lay to change conditions. Here we are dealing with pupils in the high school who, as some one has pointed out, are not in the position of Tennyson's soldiers. Theirs is *not* to do and die; theirs is but to reason why, their doing being postponed at least three and probably more than ten years. Meanwhile the effect of the teacher's own answer to the question

is in most cases to end further consideration and thus rob the pupils of a chance to find out further about either the ramifications of the current problem or the connections it might have with the topic of the course.

Discussion with some of the able and experienced teachers mentioned earlier in the paper indicated that as a rule they did not offer their own answers to such questions. They recognize the fact that people may differ honestly about social questions. They regard it as a greater service to seek to have such opinions based upon as full a knowledge of all that is involved in the question as possible, confident that action based upon such knowledge will result in less social injustice, greater social good, whether the individual's opinion be conservative, liberal, or radical. They therefore welcome issues on which the public is stirred, utilizing the passionate zeal which the pupils acquire as a means of enhancing interest in the related problems considered in class. It is a chal-

lenge to their skill to transform passionate partisanship into added study and reflection. It is idle to let pupils generate added passion by futile debate as to whether one party is better than another party, one church better than another church, President Roosevelt better than former President Hoover. On the other hand, interest even in such problems may be used by the teacher to lead the pupils to seek further information about political parties, churches, and presidents. Guidance is necessary to direct attention away from the general questions which can only arouse further passion to search for further information about particular points which are incidentally raised. Thus even the most passionate of controversial issues may be used to serve the fundamental purpose of instruction in social-science subjects—to cultivate the habit of seeking to solve public questions on the basis of as accurate and full knowledge of what is involved as each individual is capable of doing.

Dealing with Controversial Topics

C. L. Cushman

EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. Cushman is the director of research and curriculum of the Denver public schools. In this article he sets forth both a justification of controversial subject matter and explains the conditions under which one very successful experiment in dealing with vital problems was carried on.

P. W. L. C.

THE title of this article might better be stated: Is there a place in American life for high schools in which the discussion of controversial topics is not given a place of major importance? And my answer to the question as thus stated would be: At the present time such schools are permitted to exist, but I believe we are approaching a time when the answer will be no.

"To ignore important social and economic issues in the curriculum is to relegate education to scholasticism,"¹ and I see nothing in the temper of the American taxpayer to believe that he wishes to support an institution of American education relegated to scholasticism.

That controversial topics should have a major place in the high-school curriculum is, to me, clear. The important question is, How is this to be done? What are the ways and means by which controversial topics can be given a place of major importance?

We must work with the public.

Is the public desirous that controversial topics be included in high-school social science?

The experience in Denver during the past years has led me to the conclusion that the public at the present time would not only permit but would encourage an honest and intelligent consideration of controversial topics beyond that which the schools are now ready to provide. This does not, of course, mean that the public in any organ-

ized sense is demanding that this be done. Rather it means that where advances have been made and the public has been fully informed as to what was being done, the public has been ready to endorse such changes. A few illustrations will, perhaps, be pertinent.

In the fall of 1932 one of the senior high schools in Denver set about to reorganize its teaching of world history in the tenth grade in such a way as to greatly increase the emphasis upon current world issues. In three experimental classes of that school the usual method of teaching history by a chronological approach was reversed. In these classes the study was approached through the study of world affairs of today. History, in turn, was used as a direct means of interpreting and making meaningful for the students these current world affairs.

No pupil was admitted to these classes except upon the written approval of his parents. By means of letters and individual conferences, parents were acquainted with the objectives sought in these classes. As an added means of keeping the homes informed on the work of these classes, the students were encouraged to discuss with their parents the same questions that were being discussed at school. They were also encouraged to take home *The American Observer*, the weekly paper to which these students subscribed, and to discuss it with their parents. Throughout the year these classes met with the hearty endorsement of parents.

There were, of course, numerous instances in which parents did not agree with the point of view expressed in *The American Observer* or certain points of view discussed in the class. In a surprisingly large percentage of these cases, however, parents expressed a willingness for their children to consider points of view in conflict with theirs.

¹ Thomas H. Briggs, "Propaganda and the Curriculum," *Teachers College Record*, March 1933.

In January 1932, a letter was sent to the parents of all students entering the tenth grade of this senior high school stating that their children might choose between classes in world history which would use this "modern approach" and others which would use the typical "chronological approach." No attempt was made to express a preference for one class as against the other. Approximately 65 per cent of the parents requested in writing that their children be enrolled in the newer type classes. This has been considered sufficient endorsement to justify the school in organizing all of the world history for the year 1933-1934 on the new basis.

Realizing that understanding and approval on the part of members of the public other than the parents is also necessary, descriptions of the work of these classes and classes in other Denver high schools doing similar experimental work have been carried to the public through various means. The following is one example: During the school year 1932-1933 a presentation of the work of such classes was given before seven different civic groups of the City of Denver. Students from these classes participated in this presentation by describing the methods of work which they were using and the topics which they were considering. Great care was taken in each case to emphasize the fact that in these classes students were considering points of view held relative to controversial topics which would be in conflict with the points of view held by many adults in the groups. It was also emphasized that the schools were attempting to deal with these topics in such a manner as to encourage students to form their own opinions, insisting only that they attempt to get at the facts. These presentations again have met with hearty public endorsement.

One public leader of the community concluded a letter of comment on one of these programs, as follows: "Work such as that shown us yesterday, I believe, justifies the educational expenses to which taxpayers are contributing so generously." Another has

offered to organize a group of men to meet once each week with a group of students in one of the high schools to consider with them vital current issues.

It would, of course, be possible for one to become too enthusiastic about the types of reaction related in the foregoing. Opposition to this type of program would, as a rule, come not from the community at large, but from small well-organized groups within the community. It would, however, seem reasonable to believe that if the schools can continue to build a program dealing with controversial topics with this same type of general public knowledge and approval, it would be possible to deal with any organized opposition which might at some future date develop. There also remains the question of the extent to which this public attitude is temporary and will be altered by the return of better times. It is our hope that we can build on a foundation which will remain secure throughout future changes in the business cycle.

We must be sure that the problems with which we deal are real and understandable to our pupils.

Can high-school boys and girls intelligently discuss controversial topics?

The tremendous gap which exists in American society between adolescent and adult activities makes the problem of adjusting the discussion of controversial topics to the understanding of pupils especially difficult. Nevertheless, I am convinced that the youth of our high schools can learn to deal with these problems in a vital and meaningful way provided we make the proper approach. Such an approach must embody the following essentials:

1. A clear understanding that our purpose is to help pupils to develop habits of critical thinking and not to indoctrinate them with predetermined conclusions
2. A realization that the foundation of ill-formed convictions on the part of immature youth leads away from rather than towards the achievement of this purpose

3. The development in the pupils of a readiness to admit that their tentative conclusions may be mistaken and will need re-examination with advancing years

4. A readiness to admit that many subjects and certain phases of many others are beyond the understanding of pupils, at least in the early years of high school

For two reasons these essentials are difficult to achieve. First, the tendency of the American high school is to teach conclusions. We take delight in the giving of final answers. Second, it is easy to become enthusiastic over the spectacle of immature boys and girls speaking with a sense of finality on subjects which they do not, in any real sense, comprehend. And often it is misinformation which gives this assurance of which we, at times, approve.

In our haste to introduce controversial topics into the high-school curriculum, we are doubtless destined to make many mistakes along the lines suggested here. The problems are not, however, insurmountable, and we have no choice other than to attempt to deal with them.

We ourselves must grow in our economic and social understandings.

The term "we" here means all of us—superintendents, principals, curriculum makers, supervisors, and teachers. We must recognize that the institutions in which we have had our education have not looked upon social and economic understandings as matters of major importance in the training of teachers. Neither have our schools emphasized them in electing us to our positions.

The development of altered programs of teacher training which will emphasize these understandings is, of course, essential for the future improvement of our schools. School administrators have it within their power to give tremendous impetus to this end through making the possession of economic and social understandings major requirements for election to school positions.

We cannot, however, leave it to the "new blood" in our schools to bring about the

necessary reforms in our curriculum. Their number is and will doubtless continue to be too small to make themselves felt in any adequate way. If the discussion of controversial topics is to be given a place of major importance in the high-school curriculum, those of us now serving in the schools must, in the main, be responsible for the change. And this means that we must educate ourselves.

Are we willing to pay the price which this will mean or are we too busy? While I can give no final answer, I can at least mention things which have been done in Denver which indicate a favorable trend. During the winter months of the last school year, the social-science curriculum committees composed of teachers from the junior and senior high schools arranged through the City College of the University of Denver for a special extension class to consider methods of vitalizing the teaching of social science in our own high schools. This class met one evening each week for eleven weeks. More than one hundred and twenty-five teachers, principals, and members of the administrative and supervisory staff participated in the work of this class.

This class was followed by a second which dealt with a consideration of the significance of the two volumes on *Recent Social Trends in the United States* to public education. Approximately one hundred persons were enrolled for this class. Fifteen members of the general administrative and supervisory staff of the schools shared the responsibility of the instruction of this class.

These are merely illustrative of the type of schooling which must be done if we are to make ourselves capable of dealing with classes which discuss controversial topics. Furthermore, we must bear in mind that merely talking in an intelligent way about these matters is not enough. We must increase by many times our actual participation in the vital social and economic affairs of our communities. Only thus can we really prepare ourselves to teach such classes.

We must provide a new type of text and reference materials for our social-science classes.

It is a fact that at the present time there is a dearth of reference materials on current topics prepared for high-school use. There are, it is true, a few books or sets of books written for high-school use and two or three student magazines dealing with the vital social problems of our times which are of real merit. The number of such is, however, far less than the number prepared for social-science classes in elementary schools. Much use can, of course, be made of books written primarily for adults. As students grow in their interest in controversial topics, their ability to use adult books will increase. There will still, however, be many students for whom the adult treatment will continue to be too difficult. There is a very real need for such books as the following to be rewritten for high-school pupils:

James Truslow Adams, *The Epic of America* (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1932), viii+433 pages.

Joseph Lincoln Steffens, *Autobiography of Lincoln Steffens* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1931), xi+884 pages.

Adolph A. Berle, Jr., and Gardiner C. Means, *The Modern Corporation and Private Property* (New York: The Macmillan Company, c 1932), xiii+396 pages.

President's Research Committee on Social Trends, *Recent Social Trends in the United States* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1933), 2 volumes, 750+817 pages.

Sir James Arthur Salter, *Recovery: The Second*

Effort (New York: The Century Company, c 1932), xv+353 pages.

When will this be done? When publishing companies become convinced that it will pay. It is the responsibility of the schools to see that the publication of such books and magazines is made a profitable undertaking.

I should not wish it to appear from the foregoing that I believe there are not sufficient materials now available to make it possible for high-school classes to deal with controversial topics. Experience in Denver has proved otherwise. On innumerable occasions in the past two years I have seen it demonstrated that alert, interested students will secure for themselves from sources both within and without the school a far richer supply of reading materials than their teachers had believed would be obtainable.

I have attempted to outline very briefly what seem to me to be the major problems which must be dealt with in making a vital place for the discussion of controversial topics in the high-school curriculum. It is my conviction that the time will soon come when there will be no place for the high school which does not give the discussion of controversial issues a place of major importance in its curriculum. If the American secondary school cannot rise to the task of training citizens capable of dealing with the realities of life today, some other form of educational institution which can rise to this responsibility will and should be organized.

Controversial Subjects in the Curriculum

John T. Greenan

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Greenan, social-studies instructor of the East Orange, New Jersey, High School, is co-author of one of the most valuable and widely used texts dealing with the problems of democratic life. He here stresses the importance of controversial topics in vital social-studies classes and indicates the desirable methods for their treatment.*

P. W. L. C.

ANYBODY who has studied the Report of President Hoover's Committee on Social Trends must have been convinced that most of our problems of today are the result of our economic institutions changing more rapidly than our social and governmental institutions. The only hope for the future lies in the possibility of synchronizing change so that all of our institutions will go forward together at the same pace. In regard to this matter the Committee concluded,

The result has been that astonishing contrasts in organization and disorganization are to be found side by side in American life; splendid technical proficiency in some incredible skyscraper and monstrous backwardness in some equally incredible slum. The outstanding problem might be stated as that of bringing about a realization of the interdependence of the factors of our complicated social structure and of interrelating the advancing sections of our forward movement so that agriculture, labor, industry, government, education, religion, and science may develop a higher degree of coördination in the next phase of national growth.

Before we can achieve this goal we must get rid of the popular misconception that change is dangerous radicalism. As a matter of fact change is normality, while opposition to change results in chaos. The piling up of unsolved problems results in grave abuses which in turn invite revolution. Unfortunately the word "reformer" has come to be one of reproach—descriptive of one who constantly meddles with individual personal rights. Impatient and overzealous idealists are responsible for much of the opprobrium

which has attached itself to this term. However, it is vitally necessary that our schools train our young people to become reformers, train them to advocate continuous reform so that revolution will never be necessary. In a democracy reform has always lagged about a generation after the need for it first arose. Is it impossible for educators to train a generation which will not only get caught up with existing needs, but will plan ahead so that change will be continuous and directed in the way we wish to go?

WHAT SHOULD THE NEW CURRICULUM INCLUDE?

Every year the National Economic League conducts a nation-wide poll of the leaders of our country as to what are the outstanding problems of the year. Let us consider for a few moments the twenty leading problems as revealed by the last survey. The writer of this article has tried to restate these problems as they impinge upon the minds of the average American citizen. Combining those problems which overlap we have left a number of controversial questions upon whose proper settlement depends the prosperity and happiness of the people of our country.

1. How can we reduce taxes without lessening the efficiency of our governments?
2. To what extent will the reduction of inter-allied war debts improve our foreign trade?
3. Would the inclusion of all banks in our Federal Reserve System be for the best interests of our people?
4. Is the single gold standard adequate for the needs of modern commerce?
5. How can we best induce the nations of the world to lessen their armaments and settle their quarrels without resorting to war?
6. Why is our administration of justice the least efficient of all civilized countries?
7. Shall we adopt some form of unemployment insurance?

8. Is it possible in a democracy to regulate production in accordance with consumption?

9. Will the solution of the railroad problem be found in compulsory unification of all transportation facilities?

10. What is the best method of ensuring the farmer a fair return on his investment?

11. Is a more equitable distribution of wealth and income obtainable?

12. Does socialism offer the solution of our economic problems?

These are a few of the problems which the next generation of voters will have to solve as an inheritance from us. They are all controversial questions in that even the highest authorities differ as to the proper solution. The writer of this article believes that in all social-studies courses whenever controversial questions arise all sides and angles of the problem should be presented, and then the student should be urged to form his own conclusions. More than this, as a climax to all of the social studies, the eleventh or twelfth year should present to every student an entire year devoted to problems of democracy—problems similar to those listed above.

HOW SHALL WE TEACH CONTROVERSIAL SUBJECTS?

As soon as we begin to think about method the question naturally arises, shall we indoctrinate? The writer thinks we should not indoctrinate as to solutions of problems, for the following reasons:

1. When experts disagree that teacher would indeed be foolhardy who told young people that his own solution was the correct one.

2. Indoctrination can only be effective when there is some authority with the power to say, "this is right," or "that is wrong." In our government there is no such authority.

3. If such authority were placed in the hands of State boards of education (the most logical place), it is safe to assume from past experience that the schools would soon become propaganda agencies through which misguided patriotism and nationalism would shape the ideals of each succeeding generation.

4. Indoctrination is characteristic of those governments in which freedom of speech and thought have been destroyed—Russia, Italy, and now Hit-

lerite Germany. It is essentially regimentation of thought, which may be necessary to carry a nation through a great crisis, but which has eventually become destructive of all intellectual development.

Nevertheless, indoctrination of underlying principles and economic and physical laws is most necessary, as is the development of social attitudes and habits. The child must be freed from the racial and class prejudices and superstitions which are so frequently brought into the classroom from the home. The hope of the realization of a new social order does not rest upon any program of solutions of current problems taught in the schools. Rather, it rests upon the ideals, attitudes, and habits of straight thinking which the school develops in the child. The more nearly the school can approximate real life situations in this training the more successful it will be.

Whatever method of presenting controversial problems is adopted—and there are many possibilities—the first few weeks of the school year should be devoted to the setting up of habit goals for the year's work and to the development of the scientific attitude in problem solving. It is extremely important that all points of view and all sides of controversial questions be considered by the class. Then the students should be encouraged to reach their own conclusions under the leadership of a student chairman. The teacher and the student chairman should work out together a discussion outline to be placed upon the blackboard before the class discussion begins. However, this should be preceded by a thorough class study of all of the relevant facts, otherwise the discussion will be superficial and worthless.

The procedure of the United States Supreme Court in reaching majority, concurring, and dissenting opinions might well be followed. While the instructor must always be the guide and director he should remain in the background as much as possible during the periods devoted to socialized discussion. Under no conditions should he force

his solutions of problems upon the class. However, it is his duty to see that the class considers all possible angles of problems and does not wander too far afield in its discussion.

THE CASE FOR TEACHING CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

The teaching of controversial questions is in accordance with the objectives of tax-supported public schools. We must never lose sight of the fact that the public schools are supported by taxpayers in order that our Government may endure. The public schools are dedicated to the task of perpetuating our republic through the development of that type of future citizen who will help to create intelligent public opinion. What better preparation for the solution of future community problems could be given our young people than training in the development of intelligent opinion about present-day problems? It may indeed be true that the confusion of problems with which we find ourselves overwhelmed today is partly due to the fact that our schools have given too much of their curricula to ancient history and ancient languages, and too little time to the study of the present and the future. We have not encouraged thinking; we have encouraged the memorizing of useless details.

The teaching of controversial questions is in accordance with sound psychological principles. There was a time when we justified everything we did educationally as "training the mind," whether it was conjugating a Greek verb or learning verbatim parts of the Constitution. Then the psychologists convinced us that the "carryover" from one learning situation to another was only to the same degree as the situations were similar.

In life we are constantly faced by situations which are controversial; for example, one group insists that the tariff be raised and another urges with equal force that it be lowered. The same thing is true of many

other issues about which we as intelligent citizens are expected to have sound opinions. The remarkable growth of the public-forum movement as a medium of adult education testifies to the need for this sort of thing. Since this is the type of thinking we are constantly required to do, why not teach our young people the best technique for solving such problems?

Teaching controversial questions should develop desirable attitudes and habits. This form of instruction will, of course, develop a rich background of social concepts, but of equal importance it must develop certain desirable attitudes and habits. Most desirable of these is social-mindedness; by which is meant an intelligent urge to have a part in making the world a better place in which to live; subordinating personal desires to the common good; willingness to assume responsibility in cooperating for the general welfare; faith that things can be improved; sympathy for the underdog; tolerance of shortcomings in others, but not our own; hatred for injustice; and distrust of cure-alls and panaceas.

Coöperative discussion offers an opportunity for the development of self-restraint, open-mindedness, the scientific method of examining all of the available facts before reaching a conclusion, thinking straight through to a conclusion, and thinking for oneself instead of looking around for a leader to follow. Of course these things will not be achieved unless the instructor is determined to make them objectives of the course.

The study of current problems is enjoyed by students. Most students enjoy studying current events more than they do formal subject matter. Hearing discussions of these problems at home, over the radio, or in the newsreels at the movies, young people are impressed with the fact that they are studying about events which are vital. When asked to gather data from the newspapers, magazines, or a current-events weekly, boys and girls feel that these things are worth

while. The work is really self-motivated. Students enjoy the weekly class period devoted to keeping up with what is happening at home and abroad.

To avoid controversial questions is to betray the trust which young people place in their teachers. Many times we adults have looked back upon our own schooling with regret that we were taught so much which was useless or untrue. How little of what we studied has actually functioned in our lives. The things which were really most vital in life had no place in the curriculum. Our teachers made us memorize a mass of useless facts which were forgotten as soon as the examination was over. In order to keep us out of mischief we were assigned tasks and the next day the teacher heard recitations. There was very little purposeful activity and less effort to motivate the work.

Today, more than ever, our rapidly changing world demands that education shall be so organized that it will help our young people to adjust themselves to real life situations.

CONCLUSIONS

1. That the ideal future citizen whom we teachers constantly have in mind is a person who will know what to do in a given situation, and he will have the initiative and courage to do it. He will have a rich social background as the basis for right civic action.

2. The reorganization of education must

be a continuous process in order to make it preparation for life in a rapidly changing world.

3. It is sound pedagogy to train our young people to meet real life situations in as nearly similar circumstances as is possible.

4. We must not only teach facts to give the child background, but we must as well train for the development of socially desirable attitudes and habits which will persist long after many of the facts have been forgotten.

5. Psychologists are increasingly stressing early childhood as the period of attitude and habit formation. Therefore, training of this type should begin as early as possible. However, generalization requires so rich a social background that it is of doubtful value before the senior-high-school years. A beginning might be made in the junior high school, but the teaching of controversial subjects will be most valuable in the twelfth year as a climax to all of the earlier work in the social studies.

6. The need for intelligent citizenship is so great that it would be a gross betrayal of youth to send them out from our schools unprepared for the problems they will meet.

7. We must not teach children what to think; it is very imperative that we teach them how to think about problems which they must aid in solving unless our civilization is to disintegrate as has that of so many great nations of the past. We cannot possibly achieve this goal without teaching controversial subjects.

The Power of Current Realities

Randolph O. Huus

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Huus has been a civics teacher in high schools; he has done research and consultant work for two city governments; and he has taught municipal government in a number of eastern and midwestern colleges and universities. With this broad background of experience, his answer to the question regarding the place of controversial topics in high-school social studies will be of interest to all of our readers.*

P. W. L. C.

TO AN instructor of college and university youth in the field of the social sciences, the apathy and indifference towards these subjects on the part of many of the entering students is a revealing and disturbing circumstance. Too typical is the youth who is lacking in either any appreciation of the significance of public affairs or in any sound basis on which his civic education can go forward. He wears the armor of the entrenched prejudices and protective colorings of his family, his class, and his community. Seldom have shafts from the high-school classroom made any dents in this armor. College courses in economics interest him, if at all, as aids to future business success. As for work in the fields of government and sociology, he is apt to inform you blandly that he has had a course in civics or social civics with the implication that this is entirely sufficient. The study of government to him is a study of "politics" which he defines as "graft."

The limited exposure to the social studies of the average high-school graduate entering college seems to have made few significant imprints on his mind or to have shaken him out of the commonplace indifferences to the public weal. There are many reasons for this. One contributing factor is the inadequate amount of time allotted to the study of contemporary public affairs. In many public-school systems, civics has become an abbreviated appendage to the study of his-

tory. In some school systems, the study of economics, sociology, and government is compressed into a single year's course. Neither in the conventional one-term course in civics nor in the one-year course in social science is it possible to cover all of the essentials. Under such limitations, the attempt to provide a bird's-eye view of the field, including both factual information and principles, often proves futile. The student probably emerges from such a treatment without "a framework of reference" and with a scattered smattering of factual data.

Another contributing factor is the caliber of the teaching. The American history teacher in many systems is also in charge of civics. These teachers are usually women who have specialized in history and whose knowledge of governmental processes is apt to be limited and theoretical. Such background does not make for the selection of the significant, a vivid portrayal of government as a going concern, or discussions which stir interest. The Constitution of the United States is studied as an archaic document—not as a living force. Revealing relationships between governmental principles and practices are infrequently brought out. Under these circumstances, it is natural that students complete the courses without developing any bases for critical judgment or any vital appreciation or feeling for social and civic matters.

School superintendents cannot avoid their share of the responsibility for this condition of affairs, for theirs is the primary one. Effective education for citizenship in our secondary schools awaits a realization of its importance and its meaning on the part of school administrators. Striking deeper than the matter of the mechanics and the background of the teachers, is the fear of the repercussions which may occur from vital

and courageous teaching of the social sciences. Some school superintendents have camouflaged this fear by opposing what they term as "the introduction of 'politics' into the classroom." Admittedly, social-science subjects contain far more potential dynamite than the other subjects in the curriculum. It should also be clear that unless the teaching of such a subject as civics, for example, is based upon a fearless and unprejudiced consideration of present-day fundamentals and realities of government, its justification in the curriculum is open to challenge. That such fearless teaching may bring forth the criticism of community groups is granted. That teaching of this character is imperative, if it is to be effective, is also evident.

Controversy, in the sense that it involves the airing of fundamental differences in past and prevailing points of view and attitudes towards public questions, is essential. The emotional responses of students cannot be aroused by the tedious memorizing or enumeration of legal, political, or economic facts. The wise direction of emotional reactions into thinking channels depends largely upon the skill and intelligence of the teacher. Descriptive material, no matter how well organized and absorbed is not enough. In the limited time which is allotted to the social sciences only selective and essential information should be presented to provide a reasonable background for the consideration and discussion of significant topics. It is important that the students be made aware of the underlying differences of opinion and motives of individuals and groups as they bear upon such issues as forms of government, political parties, taxation, public utilities, poverty and unemployment, crime, etc. Properly handled, a discussion in the classroom of topics such as these should aim to make the student aware of their significance, the difficulties involved in their administration, and the goals which are desirable. In the opinion of the writer, the emphasis in the handling of these issues should be on the events which are a part of the imme-

diat environment of the students, and which are, therefore, most likely to arouse their interest.

Recent disclosures make it clear that the leaders in government and industry must have the vision and courage to place the public good above their own desires for profits and power. On the public schools falls the major responsibility in educating to this point of view both the leaders of tomorrow and the rank and file of the voters who determine the character of the leadership. The public school has long been hailed as the cornerstone of a democracy. When will it realize the promise of this opportunity? It has too often substituted the shell of sentimentality or pedagogic techniques for the courage and intelligence in teaching which are imperative if effective citizenship is the goal.

If the teaching of the social sciences is to bear the fruits that a democracy should rightly expect, the significant, which is necessarily controversial, must be given precedence over methods which rely primarily upon the learning of a jumble of descriptive facts and sentiments as innocuous as copy-book maxims. Teaching of this caliber cannot be ensured only by legislation, by pronouncements of school boards or school superintendents, by supervisors, or by courses of study. In the final analysis the impact of the teacher's personality and intelligence upon the students will determine the success or failure of these courses. Alive teaching—too frequently lacking in this field—requires a high degree of skill, tact, and intelligence as well as enthusiasm and background. Such a teacher would be able to select and discuss civic fundamentals and to relate them to current realities. He would be neither a propagandist for particular reforms nor an apologist for the antisocial attitudes too commonly found in our community life. He would be open-minded, objective, realistic, and spirited. He would not demand conformity of opinion among the students but would encourage the expres-

sion of intelligent differences in points of view. He would bring to light in the classroom for critical analysis the commonplace observations which are rooted in prejudices, traditions, and false self-interest. He would strive to develop a receptive attitude towards varying points of view and ideas and a fearless consideration of them from the standpoint of the public good. While thrusting students into the sea of public controversy, he would also point out ways and means of testing men and measures with relation to

their contribution towards the improvement of democratic government, and make students definitely aware of their civic responsibilities and opportunities. He would stimulate, direct, and explain, rather than dogmatize and moralize. He would not judge the success of his teaching by the extent to which his students adopted his own personal views. He would maintain an impersonal and scientific attitude towards issues discussed and encourage the students to arrive at intelligent and socially-minded conclusions.

The League for Industrial Democracy

Harry W. Laidler

EDITOR'S NOTE: *The League for Industrial Democracy renders an important service to teachers, pupils, and parents who would inform themselves concerning the impending civilization. Dr. Laidler here sets forth the character and range of materials available.*

P. W. L. C.

UNTIL a comparatively recent date, teachers and educators generally in this country have paid little attention to the pamphlet as a means of social and economic education. The contrary has been the case in Great Britain. One could not travel anywhere on the British Isles for the last generation or so without being confronted with informative pamphlets on social conditions.

Outstanding among the pamphlet literature in that country has been that issued since the eighties of the last century by the Fabian Society. The brilliant and effective monographs of Sidney and Beatrice Webb, of Bernard Shaw, Graham Wallace, H. G. Wells, Harold J. Laski, G. D. H. Cole, and others have, during the last generation or so, exercised a profound influence over British economic thought and activity.

During the last few years, Americans have fortunately begun to realize the efficacy of the scientific yet popularly written pamphlet in the life of the community. One of the organizations which has been emphasizing the value of this form of the written word is the League for Industrial Democracy, organized in 1921 with the object of "education for a new social order based upon production for use and not for profit," and officered by such educators and social thinkers as Robert Morss Lovett, John Dewey, Alexander Meiklejohn, Vida D. Scudder, Professor Vladimir Karapetoff, Stuart Chase, Norman Thomas, Mary Fox, Marion Humble, Paul Blanshard, and others.

The League has sought to emphasize in

its literature the need for increasing democracy and planning in our social life, with a view to the attainment of a more secure, a more equitable, and a more brotherly social order. It has, in the words of Bishop Francis McConnell, been able to combine "the hardest kind of facts with the highest idealism."

During the past year or two, in this most severe crisis of the last generation, teachers in colleges and secondary and grammar schools have been using these economic tracts in their classes with increasing frequency. They supply the information about our common life which educators in ever increasing numbers know that students must have if they are going to do their part in bringing industrial order out of industrial chaos. And they supply these facts in an inexpensive form, within the reach of all.

Among the pamphlets in demand are the following:

"Poor Old Competition," by Stuart Chase, five cents

"Incentives under Capitalism and Socialism," by Harry W. Laidler, fifteen cents

"Municipal Housing," by Helen L. Alfred, ten cents

"Why I am a Socialist," by Norman Thomas, five cents

"Waste and the Machine Age," by Stuart Chase

"How America Lives," by Harry W. Laidler, fifteen cents

"Old Age Security," by Abraham Epstein, fifteen cents

"Public Ownership Here and Abroad," by Harry W. Laidler, fifteen cents

"Karl Marx and the Communist Manifesto," by Harold J. Laski, twenty-five cents

"Unemployment and Its Remedies," by Harry W. Laidler, twenty-five cents

"The L. I. D. Book List on Social Reconstruction," Recommendations of an L. I. D. Editorial Committee, five cents

"Looking Forward," A discussion outline on eight burning questions of the day, fifteen cents

And then there are several volumes prepared by the League, and numerous illustrated magazine issues on unemployment and international problems. The pamphlets are sold at reduced prices in bundle orders at the League for Industrial Democracy headquarters, 112 East 19th Street, New York, N.Y.

Beginning with September, the League is planning to issue each month an *L. I. D. Pamphlet of the Month*—pamphlets on education, banking, agriculture, coal, international relations, etc.—thus rendering its service more effective than ever. In these publications, it is promised the hearty co-operation of many eminent educators.

Today teachers are realizing the need, not of superimposing particular social philosophies upon their students, but of presenting to them the whole truth regarding

our complex industrial situation, giving them a clear idea of the constructive remedies proposed for improved economic relationships, stirring them to hard thinking, and firing them with a desire to do their part towards solving at least some of these perplexing questions. The pamphlet literature of the League of Industrial Democracy should help in this task.

NOTE: Readers who find such inexpensive material as that presented above valuable should also know the John Day pamphlets, the Modern Problems Series booklets (American Education Press, Inc.), and such independent magazines as *The New Republic*, *The Nation*, *The World Tomorrow*, *Forum*, *the New Outlook*, and *Harpers Magazine*. Such readings may well be balanced by articles in *The Saturday Evening Post*, *Collier's Weekly*, *The New York Times*, *New York Evening Post*, and *New York Herald Tribune*, and other advertising media of business.

P. W. L. C.

Public-Minded Education

Richard Welling

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Welling is chairman of the National Self-Government Committee which has for years been fostering efforts of public schools to educate new generations of public-minded youths. This Committee has found that teachers feel unable to devote time and energy to civic education because of the pressure from State departmental and college entrance requirements. In the following article Mr. Welling tells how public opinion was focused on this issue.* P. W. L. C.

HOW can a young man be impressed better with the need of honest elections as the cornerstone of democracy than by taking a hand in a hotly fought school election and if he sees his side losing, resist the temptation to make a false return of the vote?

If a playground director plays favorites and on occasion lets his pets break rules, how can a group of students learn to attack this fraud in a better way than by making the student council or principal stop it?

Under Dr. Schlockow's system of self-government, a committee of boys of Public School 109, Brooklyn, marched down to the City Hall and got the bureau in charge to repave the street in front of their school, which had been full of mudholes, all this without Dr. Schlockow's knowledge. How can young citizens learn to whip up a lax official other than by such an appeal?

Do not imagine that the spirit behind these actions comes without being specially fostered. Teachers preoccupied with passing students through the scholarship mill cannot be expected to take the time to point out the many situations where student participation can be encouraged to give the citizen outlook: "Our school. We share in running it."

A feeble lip service to this program has already been given in many high schools, but the vast number of pupils and the crowded demands of scholarship put these

activities in second place in the curriculum, indeed they are called extracurricular.

On November 4, 1932, this Committee asked the New York State Regents to push a citizenship program, reminding them of the chief purpose of our public schools laid down by the Fathers:

Franklin: "for public service"

Washington: "an enlightened opinion on self-government"

Adams: "for civic and moral duties"

Madison and Monroe: "for government"

Jefferson: "to know what is going on, and to make each his part go on right"

These Fathers blazed the trail 150 years ago for a democracy to be founded upon a perfectly new kind of public education; namely, to teach not only the machinery of government but the technique of politics and the part each citizen must take throughout the year in every step leading up to and including the final vote on election day; but as Dr. William McAndrew, the distinguished educator, has said, "The school teachers fell into the old rut of European scholarship standards, syntax, cube root, and other frills, and the democracy planned by the Fathers *has not even been tried.*"

The inquiry to the Regents was signed by John Dewey, Alfred E. Smith, Nicholas Murray Butler, Paul D. Cravath, Raymond B. Fosdick, Margaret Blaine Damrosch, Robert E. Simon, William McAndrew, and the writer. It was encouraging to have the Regents reply:

The Department contemplates a complete revision of the syllabus for citizenship and patriotism, based upon the fundamental philosophy that "a child learns by doing" . . .

Growing out of curriculum study in the secondary school is a demand that the Department, with the assistance of public-school teachers and supervisors, prepare a syllabus in social science, the subject content of which will take the place of that now outlined separately under the various

subject titles: Civics, History A, History B, and History C. . . .

The Department plans to make a survey of the status of student participation in the government of the elementary and high school.

. . . Coöperative student government systems should grow out of the immediate needs of students in a particular environmental set-up. One of the chief values of any such system is the experience gained by those who assist in its organization. As a general rule the plan which has proved most worth while for one group of students may not suit other groups. Working out effective systems based upon the democratic principle that governments should derive their just powers from the consent of the governed, stimulates, as nothing else could, an understanding and love of democracy in the hearts of the student administrators.

Could there be a more admirable statement of the principles of student government? Yet after eight or nine months of further correspondence and a conference they wrote us that they lacked the necessary funds for a survey of student government and could do nothing for the time being. Are the Regents not too optimistic when they tell us, "There is every evidence that administrative officers and teachers recognize citizenship training as the primary function of the public school?"

When we visit the schools we are told that the time needed for citizenship training cannot be given because the Regents require so much scholarship. The Regents protest that citizenship is "the primary function," yet by their examinations they give scholarship the right of way, in fact the whole road. Why don't the Regents call for a check-up each term on student coöperation, or are the words "primary function" mere weasel words? Each school could have its own system of check-up. Under such conditions, even a top scholar who was marked zero in coöperation would be denied his diploma. What a stimulus this would give to citizenship training!

Why in all these years have the schools not turned out a public-minded democracy? State Department scholarship requirements explain this failure only in part. Teachers

themselves must first catch the idea of citizenship training in the schools of education they attend. In order to further these principles the National Self-Government Committee has for several years been sending Dr. Ambrose L. Suhrie of New York University and former President of the Eastern States Association of Professional Schools for Teachers to schools of education from coast to coast inspiring faculties and students. He reports that new teachers are getting in their own training the experience needed to make them in turn effective teachers of coöperation.

Assume then that the new teachers desire to give their students a public-minded attitude. Is not a curriculum overloaded with syntax, cube root, or Latin required either by the Regents or the colleges, holding them back?

William McAndrew says:

The teacher is under the duty of training for citizenship not incidentally or remotely, not in such space as he can find between Latin and dramatic art, but primarily and preponderantly. Now, more than a century and a half since the principles of democracy were promulgated, they have not even got into the schoolmaster's blood. He is still fussing with pretty things, good enough in their way, such as the gentlemen and scholars of the days of Queen Anne used to put their tune to.

Why don't the Regents do away with "frills" and plan a syllabus that calls for topics such as the following:

Current events and newspaper reading—The boys and girls should get a clear distinction between local, State, and national politics and develop a real interest and zest. They should not be too easily "led by the nose" but keen to know the interests behind each newspaper. Instead of a civics class doing this for one short term in the four years of high school, the whole school should do it throughout the entire high-school course. Newspaper reading should be given a high place as Dr. McAndrew gave it many years ago in Washington Irving High School.

Every school should have its newspaper and if the proper interest is developed there should be opposing policies and this might require two newspapers with opposing views or debates in parallel columns of the same paper. If this seems a bold step let us remind ourselves that Jefferson said if he had his choice between government without newspapers or newspapers without government, he would prefer newspapers without government. Of course he meant news by whatever means: radio or printed word.

The McKee "write-in" vote in the last New York City elections shows the marvelous power of the press. The papers so played up the fine qualities of Acting Mayor McKee that without the usual political weapons, over 260,000 people took the trouble to write in his name which did not appear on the ballot. Had his name been printed on the ballot he might have been elected Mayor.

In that election Tammany had the political technique that wins 99 times out of 100 without the aid of the press. What are these time-honored rules of the game?

- (a) They had each district so organized that they knew the voters in every house and could count on a majority. Of course they had their candidates groomed and prepared long in advance. Voting is harvesting the crop that has been planted, hoed, and watered throughout the year. This is what bosses and district leaders do while we are asleep.
- (b) They had patronage; i.e., salaried offices (often sinecures) handed out or retained by

the faithful, and with mighty little regard for real fitness as determined by examinations.

- (c) Finally they had the power to grant favors all the way from a judge's suspended sentence to the "fixing" of a violation of some City ordinance. This is what keeps the business man scared so that he is afraid to come out in the open against Tammany.

But they did not have the press. There was not one newspaper supporting the seven long years of Walker's mismanagement. And yet because the papers had faithfully reported McKee's bold stand, look at his vote.

The schools should teach the difference between national politics and city affairs and why the elections should be separated. It should teach a thoroughgoing merit system with practical examinations to determine fitness and ability for public office. Without talking politics they should be told if the City Commissioner of Weights and Measures has put his O.K. on short-weight scales, if the City paid \$12,500,000 for Rockaway Beach land recently assessed at about \$1,200,000, and any other flagrant instances of misgovernment.

The millstone around democracy's neck is the furtive and often not so furtive love of autocracy and European standards of scholarship. The Regents have been laboring with a scholarship program, undoubtedly meeting a public opinion of the past which delighted in autocratic government and old-fashioned book learning. If they will steer closer to the ideals of the Founders, they will give us a new democracy.

Social Science and Mathematics Get Together

Helen Halter and Goldena Bills

EDITOR'S NOTE: The authors of this article are the supervisors of student teaching of social studies and of mathematics, respectively, at the New York State College for Teachers. They here present an adventure in integrating the subject experiences of eighth-grade pupils in Milne Junior High School which should inspire resourceful teachers everywhere to make similar attempts. The first steps towards the resolution of the educational confusion must generally involve just such voluntary cooperation between subject-matter teachers.

P. W. L. C.

THE teacher of an eighth-grade mathematics class at the New York State College for Teachers announced that the new unit which the class was to study would be taxation. "Why, how nice," Barbara said, "we started that in social science this morning, too." Jack was more excited. He rejoiced loudly, "Whoopee, math will help us in our social, then." Barbara and Jack were evidently expressing the sentiment of the group. There was unanimous surprise and delight that one subject was really an aid to learning another.

When the pleasurable surprise of the class was reported to the social-science and mathematics supervisors, they felt with some chagrin that after all the fact that many student teachers were involved was hardly an adequate excuse for having allowed this attitude of separation of subjects to exist. Certainly in the future at least a simple type of correlation between social science and mathematics could be accomplished. Subjects could be studied concurrently in both classes, and, with a few conferences between

teachers, data gathered in social-science classes could be used as a basis for problems in mathematics; tables and graphs constructed in mathematics could be used as a basis for discussion in social science.

The major values to pupils of such simple correlation of social science and mathematics seem to be, first, their realization that mathematics is a tool subject, and, second, their habituation in using mathematics as a valuable aid to thinking in the social sciences. Other gains of the correlation procedure, not so important but also listed by student teachers, were: improvement of students' abilities to use data in constructing graphs and in making statistical analyses, since specialized instruction is given by the mathematics teacher and practice in such abilities is uniformly directed; improvement of students' abilities to see the social implications of statistical data since such mathematical problems are repeatedly analyzed and used as data in social-science discussions; economy of students' time by eliminating the overlapping which necessarily exists when the mathematics department attempts to introduce social problems, such as taxation, and the social-science class does laboratory work figuring rates and statistics which might better be vital practice for mathematics.

A partial list of the subjects frequently considered in social science which offer possibilities of correlation with mathematics follows:

Social-Science Units

Family

Occupations

Indications of Possible Mathematics Correlation

Make out budgets for an average family; compare cost in renting and home ownership; mortgages

Compute commissions; estimate cost of education for different types of occupations

Leisure	Keep an account of the expense in traveling, such as railroad fare, gasoline, hotel bills; understand the metric system and its use in international sports; compare amounts spent by the American public in different types of recreation
Insurance and pensions	Find the amount of premiums to be paid; comparison of amounts to be paid by employer and employee for retirement funds and pensions
Money and banking	Keep check books and compute interest
Capital and labor	Compute gain or loss in buying and selling stocks and bonds; compute per cent of profit to employer and employee
Advertising and installment buying	Compute rate of interest in installment buying; graph figures on cost of advertising
Public utilities	Read gas and electric meters and compute bills; compare rates under government ownership with those under private ownership
Taxation	The essential sections of a unit plan on taxation which was worked out by a committee of student teachers of the social-science and mathematics departments of the practice school is given in the following pages

Unit Plan on Taxation

I. GROUP OBJECTIVES

ATTITUDE DEVELOPMENTS

Social Science and Mathematics

1. A feeling that taxes are necessary and beneficial
2. A feeling of responsibility to pay taxes
3. A personal interest in the spending of public money and a desire that it be spent wisely
4. An appreciation of the influence of public opinion on the amount and spending of taxes
5. A respect for public property and its cost to the taxpayer
6. An appreciation of the cost of education
7. A distaste for war and its costs
8. An appreciation of the justice of the government's attempts to distribute the burden of taxation equitably

DEVELOPMENT OF ABILITIES AND SKILLS

Social Science

1. In reading newspaper reports of taxation
2. In listening to explanations of taxes by parents and officials visited
3. In using reference books to find statistics on taxation
4. In interpreting graphs showing how money is raised and spent

Mathematics

1. In expressing tax rates in different forms: per cent, per \$1,000, per \$100, mills on \$1.00
2. In finding the tax rate when the assessed valuation and the amount of the tax are known
3. In finding the amount of the tax when the assessed valuation and the tax rate are known
4. In reading and interpreting simple tax tables
5. In computing the amount of interest paid on overdue taxes
6. In computing income taxes on net income
7. In making graphs to show how tax money is raised and spent

KNOWLEDGES

Social Science and Mathematics

1. Why taxes are necessary to run the government
2. Kinds of taxes
3. Uses of taxes

4. The necessity for and importance of the tax budget
5. The advantages and benefits derived from the payment of taxes
6. Taxation, a triple problem—Federal, State, local
7. Meaning of the following terms: tax, tax rate, levy, assessor, assessed valuation, direct tax, indirect tax, internal revenue tax, duty, excise tax, tariff, protective tariff, real property tax, personal property tax, poll tax, sales tax, single tax, inheritance tax, custom (ad valorem and specific), budget, "balancing the budget," income tax, exemption, net income, earned income

Social Science

1. History of taxation
2. The story of taxation in the United States
3. Taxation in other countries
4. The large percentage of tax money used for expenses in wars
5. The public debt
6. Plans of taxation reform

Mathematics

1. The procedure in assessing property
2. What causes the tax rate to vary
3. Exemptions in income tax

- II. WAYS OF HAVING THE CLASS SUGGEST THE STUDY OF THIS UNIT OR ACQUIRING A PREDISPOSITION TO BE INTERESTED IN IT WHEN IT IS SUGGESTED TO THEM

Social Science

Articles on balancing the budget and raising money by the beer tax have been on the front page of all the newspapers. The class seemed interested in discussing them and agreed readily that they would like to study taxation when it was suggested.

- III. STARTING POINT OF UNIT FROM PUPIL'S PRESENT PROBLEMS OR INTERESTS

Social Science

Discussion of student tax paid at school

- IV. MEANS OF HAVING PUPILS FORMULATE THE PROBLEM AND STEPS FOR SOLVING

Social Science

The teacher will ask this question, "What do we want to find out about taxes?" Class will suggest a list of problems to be studied. These the class secretary will post on the bulletin board. In a parallel column he will record how each question will be answered as ways are suggested by the class. (Example: "What are other countries doing about taxation?—Report by Helen S.; "What are taxes used for?"—Visit to the State Tax Bureau by Edmund H.; etc.)

- V. POSSIBLE CULMINATION OF UNIT PROBLEM IN CLASS EXCURSION, DRAMATIZATION, CLASS BOOK, NEWSPAPER, INVESTIGATION, OR OTHER PROJECT

Social Science

1. Visit tax bureau
2. A trip to the legislature where the tax question may be under consideration
3. An up-to-date "book" on taxation written for the social-science library by the class—to include graphs made in mathematics class, reports, clippings, etc.
4. A series of resolutions concerning present tax situation—opinion of class

Mathematics

1. Class notebook of taxes of an average American family, including pages on their property tax, inheritance tax, income tax, etc.

- VI. MATERIALS (books, magazines, clippings, slides, exhibits)¹

- VII. TEACHER REFERENCES FOR A BROADENED POINT OF VIEW ABOUT THE UNIT¹

- VIII. COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS WITH WHICH MEMBERS OF THE CLASS SHOULD CORRESPOND ABOUT THIS UNIT

¹ Lack of space compels the omission of lists of materials (topics 6 and 7) available for teachers and pupils at Milne High School of New York State College for Teachers. The authors of the article will be glad to send these lists to inquirers.—EDITOR.

Social Science

1. State Tax Bureau
2. City Tax Bureau

IX. POSSIBLE COMMITTEE TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION DURING LABORATORY PERIODS AND PUPILS WHO MIGHT BE INTERESTED AND SHOULD TAKE PART

Social Science and Mathematics

1. Committees to make graphs (Committees plan graphs and collect data for them in social-science class. Graphs are made in the mathematics class)
 - a) Proposed expenditure of the City of Albany for 1933. Data from the report of the committee visiting City Tax Bureau
 - b) State and City expenditures for the year 1931 by New York State for primary governmental purposes. Data from report of State Tax Commission, 1931, page 54, secured by committee visiting State Tax Bureau
 - c) United States Customs Revenue and Internal Revenue receipts for years 1927-1932. Data from the *World Almanac*, 1933, page 415.
 - d) United States Government Receipts and Expenditures for year 1932. Data from *World Almanac*, 1933, page 406
 - e) Total expenditures by local, state, and Federal governments, 1929. Data from the *Services and Costs of Government*, page 4
 - f) Public debt of the United States—1912, 1917, 1922, 1927, 1932. Data from the *World Almanac*, 1933, page 405
 - g) Federal expenditures 1932. Data from clipping in *New York Times* (April 24, 1932)
 - h) The course of the public debt. Data from clipping in *New York Times* (March 19, 1923)

Social Science

2. Committee to report on student tax (Why we have it, what it is, what it is used for, why it should be paid—is any of it wasted?)
3. Committee to visit the principal and ask him how students can help conserve the taxpayers' money in school
4. Committee to report on taxation in modern European countries
5. Committee to have charge of current articles about taxation—posting with explanations
6. Committee to investigate the history of taxation in the United States
7. Committee to show pictorially how the students can conserve the public's money
8. Committee to make cartoons on the use of taxes, responsibility of the citizen to pay taxes, etc.
9. Committee to write the story of taxation and illustrate it
10. Committee to visit the State Tax Bureau
11. Committee to visit the City Tax Bureau
12. Committee to report on the latest income-tax laws
13. Committee to report on President Roosevelt's plan of taxation

X. WAYS IN WHICH THE TEACHER WILL INDICATE TO THE CLASS INTEREST AND APPRECIATION OF THEIR EFFORTS ON THE PROBLEM

Social Science

Offer to take class to the legislature where they may hear tax bill being discussed
 Bring in clippings on taxation for class use
 Bring in Roosevelt's *Looking Forward* and let them use it to find the President's views on taxation
 Complement with valuable contributions and efforts

XI. QUESTIONS FUNDAMENTAL TO THE PROBLEM DISCUSSION

Social Science

1. What will be the future of taxation?
 (Will taxes be decreased or increased?)
2. Do you approve of the increase in the public debt? Why or why not?
 a) What do you think of Roosevelt's plan of bonds for relief?
3. I heard a boy say, "Don't try to save paper—use all you want—the school pays for it." What do you think of the boy's statement?

- a) Do you know of any other cases where people have been wasteful and careless of public property?
- b) Who pays for the damage done to public property?
4. Could the ways in which taxes are spent be improved? How?
5. Have you heard people complaining about their income-tax returns and about having to pay a tax on gasoline and shows?
 - Are the benefits of taxes worth what they cost us?
 - a) Is it right to "pad" exemptions?
 - b) What happens when people don't pay taxes?
6. Are income taxes and inheritance taxes fair?

XII. HOME ASSIGNMENTS, IF ANY USED

Social Science

1. Follow newspaper for items on taxation and balancing the budget
2. Ask parents about the kinds of taxes they have to pay
3. Ask parents why so many people dislike to pay taxes

Mathematics

1. Ask families about Albany's tax rate for the past year
2. Ask families how property is assessed
3. Drill problems to develop skills in computing taxes and tax rate

XIII. POSSIBLE CONCRETE PROJECT

Social Science and Mathematics

All graphs, committee reports, charts, and write-ups will be assembled in a unit notebook on taxation for the social-science library.

XIV. PLAN FOR PUPIL USE OF BULLETIN BOARD

Social Science

Pupil committee to arrange bulletin board to show current clippings on taxation, reports, graphs, and class analysis of the problem

XV. METHODS OF CHECKING DEVELOPMENTS

Social Science

ATTITUDE

In discussion
In attitude test (written)

Sample question

On their way to the city park baseball ground, some boys used the short cut. One day they found their short cut dug up and planted with grass seed and a sign asking that pedestrians keep off. One of the boys said, "Oh, come on, the city can buy some more grass seed and plant it." (Write your opinion of the boy's statement.)

SKILLS AND ABILITIES

In class reports
In answering questions on graph interpretations on written test

KNOWLEDGE

Objective questions on written test

Social Science

PROCEDURE

First Day

1. Introduction
 - a) Why are people concerned over taxes today?

Mathematics

Unit test covering attitudes, skills, and knowledges

Mathematics

1. Introduction by discussion of the kinds and uses of taxes and terms

- b) What things would we want to find out about the problem of taxes?
- c) Class to ask parents tonight about the kinds of taxes they have to pay
2. Reading—Edmonson and Dondineau—Chapter VI
 - a) 2.5 per cent
 - b) 25 mills per \$1.00
 - c) \$2.50 per \$100
 - d) \$25.00 per \$1,000
3. Class to find out what the Albany tax rate is and how property is assessed

Second Day

1. Short review and test on reading done the previous day
2. Appointment of committees and discussion of what they are to do
3. List of terms to be defined
1. Class reports on the Albany tax rate
2. Practice in finding the amount of tax when the assessed valuation and tax rate are known
3. Practice in reading a tax table

Third Day

1. Discussion of student tax
2. Talk about taxes parents have to pay and classify them
3. Reading of other reference books on taxation—each pupil reading a different book
1. Discussion of budgets
2. Practice in finding tax rate when the assessed valuation and expense are known

Fourth Day

1. Oral drill on terms
2. Report on income-tax law
3. Review of current news on taxation
4. Appointment of remaining committees
1. Practice in finding interest for late payment of taxes
2. Introduction of customs and tariffs—discussion

Fifth Day

1. Current-events program by committee
2. Discussion of clipping "Balancing the Budget"
1. Practice in computing duties—(ad valorem and specific)

Sixth Day

1. Committee reports
 - History of taxation
 - Interview with the principal on how students can save the taxpayers' money
 - Visit to the State Tax Bureau
 - Visit to the City Tax Bureau
1. Discussion of income tax and terms
2. Discussion of exemptions
3. Practice in computing taxes on net income

Seventh Day

1. Laboratory work on reports, cartoons, data for graphs
2. Reading of "Services and Costs of Government" pamphlets (completed at home)
1. Practice in finding income taxes

Eighth Day

1. Reports completed
2. Laboratory work on notebook
1. Construction of graphs from data collected in social science

Ninth Day

1. Committee meetings
 - a) Committee on current events
 - b) Committee to suggest questions for discussion
 - c) Bulletin board committee
 - d) Other students writing up reports, cartoons, etc.
1. Completion of graphs

*The Clearing House**Tenth Day*

1. Test
2. Discussion of test
3. Discussion of sales tax

1. Review of knowledges and skills

Eleventh Day

1. Using a list of discussion questions formulated by a committee of the class, a vote was taken to select those to be discussed in class
2. Magazine reading on taxation articles
3. Discuss question, "Ought we to pay more taxes to Federal or to local government?"
1. Test on attitudes, knowledges, and skills

Twelfth Day

Current-events program
Explanation of graphs
Discussion
Summary

Ent
coll
Yor
has
has
year
ing
gran
mun
train
with
inst

C
mal
ers
tion
of
sub
suc
to
had
nite
tion
as
to
acti
ope
teac
the
you
tim
A
prin
pre
wri
vio
in
ver
age
tra
hav

lege

Teachers and Citizenship

Ambrose L. Suhrie

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Suhrie, professor of teachers-college and normal-school education at New York University, within the past twelve months has visited every one of our forty-eight States and has completed his visits (covering a period of ten years) to all of our tax-supported teacher-preparing institutions, including State universities, land-grant colleges, State women's colleges, State and municipal teachers colleges, normal schools, and training schools. He has conducted conferences with groups of student officers in scores of these institutions.*

P. W. L. C.

ON THE eve of the writer's departure from New York, early in January, to make an extended series of visits to teachers colleges and normal schools in all sections of the country, the Editor of this issue of THE CLEARING HOUSE requested him to submit, on his return, a short article on some such topic as the above. It was a pleasure to accept this invitation inasmuch as plans had already been made to inquire very definitely, in each one of the scores of institutions to be visited during a half year's leave, as to just what is being done specifically to educate and train prospective teachers for active and effective participation in a coöperative type of citizenship, first within the teachers college itself and, secondly, within the schools and communities in which these young men and young women will, in due time, serve as teachers.

As a student, for many years, of the printed curricula of all types of teacher-preparing institutions in this country, the writer has long been impressed by the obvious fact that the program of social studies in these institutions is, generally speaking, very much like the conventional "cold-storage" models of citizenship training of the traditional arts and science colleges which have been more or less consciously imitated.

The curriculum specialist¹ who has coöperated with the United States Office of Education in the National Survey of Teacher Training seems to have been similarly impressed as his report, soon to be published, will doubtless clearly indicate.

From the history of teaching as a profession one might naturally expect that, in the institutions especially designed to prepare for this profession, the autocratic, the didactic, and the traditional would prevail over the democratic, the experimental, and the progressive. Such, unfortunately, seems to have been the case in most if not all of the early normal schools. All recent efforts, therefore, to reform and modernize the social-studies program of our teachers colleges have met the resistance of long-established custom.

One may admit, however, that the printed curriculum is more or less static without conceding that the outlook is necessarily hopeless or even seriously discouraging. The most promising students are likely to educate themselves in spite of the limitations of the formal curriculum and, fortunately, the operative program of social and civic training in the best of these institutions is more inclusive and far more dynamic than the official printed program. It includes the whole array of activities, cocurricular and extracurricular as well as curricular, which play any significant part in the educative process. It embraces the informal as well as the formal aspects of the school's program, the dynamic as well as the systematic elements of instruction and training.

Happily one may find institutions here and there scattered all over the country (and, in the East, a considerable number of them) in which young people preparing to teach are definitely invited to participate with the faculty in redefining the purposes

¹ Dr. Earle Rugg of the Colorado State Teachers College.

and in refining the methods of citizenship training. As a result, organizations and agencies are being set up, within the school and community, on the initiative of prospective teachers themselves, to provide for, and, in as far as possible, to ensure the achievement of a more effective kind of coöperative citizenship than has yet prevailed. These organizations are, in many instances, coming to be powerful factors in stimulating individual initiative and in developing a sense of definite responsibility to the group. The history of all student organizations seems to indicate clearly that when they are free from faculty domination, that is to say, when they are *of* the students, *for* the students, and *by* the students, they quickly demonstrate that their members are willing, indeed anxious, to secure competent counsel from faculty members as well as from other sources and to profit by it. Under these conditions effective leadership is almost sure to develop within the student body itself.

Until recently the prevailing administrative policies and practices in normal schools have badly contradicted the professed educational philosophy of those who have held responsible administrative positions therein. The typical normal school has too often been a one-man institution and the spirit in which the principal has administered and directed its affairs has been such as to call readily to one's mind the pungent epigram uttered by an irascible member of the national House of Representatives, who, on one occasion, in a moment of impatience exclaimed "It takes a hell a lot of autocracy, to make the world safe for democracy." (Emerson once said "What you are thundering so loudly in my ears, that I cannot hear what you say!")

The newer and more effective type of administrative and instructional leadership in our teachers colleges is saying impressively to our prospective teachers, *by acts and by attitudes*, not merely in words "I am your teacher *on occasion only*; you are my teach-

ers *often*; let us all be students together *always*."

In this spirit and with organizations and agencies well suited to the achievement of effective, happy, dynamic coöperation in the big college family on the campus, the best administrative and instructional leadership in our teachers colleges is engaged in helping our prospective teachers to educate themselves coöperatively for a genuinely democratic and effective type of leadership in the schools where they are to teach and in the communities where they will live.

It is gratifying to note the steady increase in the number of teachers colleges in which joint-student faculty committees meet regularly *to study together* the problems of coöperative living which present themselves on the college campus and to make appropriate recommendations to the general assembly of students or to the faculty or to both these groups.

The writer here recalls for his readers a few of the many happy and profitable contacts he has recently had, in widely separated places, with student-faculty groups working earnestly, effectively, and in a fine spirit of coöperation upon some of these problems.

1. In one of the southern teachers colleges he was privileged to spend two hours with a student-faculty committee of the Y.W.C.A. hearing reports on what had been done during the first month or six weeks of the college year (a) to give the new students a comfortable and effective introduction to the rich life of the campus and (b) to a searching analysis of the shortcomings of the program which had been set up for the purpose (together with a check-up on the performance of those who had been assigned definite responsibilities in its administration).

2. In a midwestern teachers college he had an opportunity to confer at length with a joint-student faculty committee on the operation and possible effectiveness of a proposed program for acquainting prospective high-school graduates, within the service

area of the college, with the scope and purpose of each of the several curricula of the college, with the institution's facilities for observation and apprentice teaching, with special attractive features of its campus life, etc. This planning was in anticipation of certain appointed occasions when school delegations should come by invitation to the campus of the college to be entertained as guests by the faculty-student committee appointed for the purpose.

It was easily apparent in this conference that the members of the committee were keenly aware of their duties, privileges, and responsibilities in the entertainment of each of the delegations scheduled to come and that none of these occasions was to be allowed to become perfunctory or routine. It was especially interesting to note the character of the auditorium program which was being considered as a means of interpreting the college life to visitors and the emphasis it placed upon the high professional, ethical, and scholastic standards which the students as well as the faculty desired should always be maintained by the college.

3. In an eastern State normal school, a joint-student faculty committee on daily student assemblies (with a student membership four or five times as numerous as the faculty membership and representing every class section or homeroom group in the college) told the writer in detail of the attempts that had been made to set up and conduct a program that should provide opportunity to every student to appear in public programs and to make this opportunity so appealing that it should be freely embraced by all. It was interesting also to note the importance these young people attached to the matter of acquiring the art of being inspiring and helpful listeners.

4. In one of the teachers colleges of the Northwest great emphasis has for some years been placed upon the assembly forum. The students and faculty members, working together on the problem, have found ways and means of securing wide diversity

in the range and scope of the topics and discussions and of enlisting school-wide interest and enthusiastic participation.

5. In a far-western teachers college a student who had had a significant part in stimulating general participation in the school's club program volunteered the information that her study of the spontaneous choice of particular clubs by certain of her fellow students had done more to impress upon her mind the character and significance of individual differences in abilities, tastes, and interests than any systematic study she had ever given the subject in any or all of her classes in which the topic had been treated. She added with enthusiasm "We must find a way to build a club program so varied and so appealing that no one can fail to participate happily and profitably in some part of it."

6. In a well-known New England teachers college the writer spent two hours in conference with a group of student officers who, after full consultation with the president and faculty members, had been assigned (or had volunteered to assume) full responsibility for formulating the calendar of social events for the following year. A similar group of student officers, about thirty in number, had performed a like service a year earlier and had won full approval of their recommendations by the faculty and president without the change of a single detail in the program of events included or in the dates assigned. It was apparent that this new committee was fully aware of the importance of making the program rich in opportunities for the cultivation of the social graces as well as for personal enjoyment.

7. The writer has had no more thrilling experience in all of his varied contacts with groups of young people working "for the enrichment of the common life of the college campus" than he had on a certain occasion when the student budget director in an eastern teachers college explained to his New York University group of graduate students all of the considerations which had

entered into the allotment of the respective amounts to the several sub-budgets of the student welfare fund of her college. She made it impressively clear that she and her fellow college students had given full consideration to all possible specific uses of the money which they had raised for general student welfare purposes and furthermore that in doing so they had all got very worth-while preparation for an intelligent understanding of the major problems of public finance.

8. Nearly all of the administrative devices used in the best of our teachers colleges for stimulating students and faculty members to coöperative study of common problems within the college and the coöperative planning for their solution seem to be suggested

by the desire to give prospective teachers an opportunity to face fairly all the real difficulties of coöperative self-government and to learn, notwithstanding these difficulties, "to live abundantly while getting ready to live more abundantly."

Finally, it is apparent that nominations and elections of student officers are almost everywhere conducted in good form and in the spirit of fair play on the part of all student participants; also that faculty members and administrative officers are gradually learning to refrain from predetermining the outcomes, no doubt on the reasonable assumption that students have the same inherent right to make unwise choices which their elders have enjoyed from time immemorial.

Ge

EDITOR
social
Teach
he has
guidin
High

T
school
more
such
Cons
homo
true
often
indus
site t
ratio
natio
enter
or bu
the s
As a
neou
prob
of th
ities
Be
dling
class
prob
it is
for
all n
wor
side
stru
of g
Seco
plac
may
clas
peri

Getting Results from a High-School Class

W. Harry Snyder

EDITOR'S NOTE: Dr. Snyder, assistant professor of social studies at the Montclair, New Jersey, State Teachers College, explains a methodology which he has used with marked success in arousing and guiding the efforts of pupils in the Demonstration High School at Montclair.

P. W. L. C.

THE limited enrollment and the prescribed curriculum of our small high schools usually make it impossible to form more than one or two fair-sized classes in such a course as modern European history. Consequently, there is little opportunity for homogeneous grouping of the pupils. This is true in spite of the fact that the classes often contain students of high mentality and industry who take the course as a prerequisite to entering college or perhaps in preparation for the college entrance board examinations, and average or poor students who enter the course because of general interest or because they believe it to be easier than the study of Latin or a modern language. As a result, the teachers of such heterogeneous classes are confronted with a difficult problem of instruction in order to have all of the pupils benefit according to their abilities and their needs.

Before proposing ways and means of handling this difficult situation, it seems best to classify the most important phases of the problem. First, and above everything else, it is apparent that the task is one of caring for individual differences. This means that all methods of instruction that call for group work are without value and cannot be considered in a proposed solution. Plans of instruction that are centered upon some form of graduated assignments have to be used. Second, it is necessary that the emphasis be placed upon a kind of individual work that may be carried on effectively in the ordinary classroom during the regular prescribed period. Third, there is needed an objective

system of grading that will permit the tabulation of each individual's achievement as against a minimum progress score, rather than against a class average.

The course of study is divided into natural units. These are subdivided according to topics, a mastery of which is considered most essential in understanding and developing the units of work. The topics are then set down in such order that they will assist and guide the thinking of the pupils. The leading questions asked under each topic are so chosen that they will not only call forth, but advance thought. The answer to the first question is essential in understanding the second question, while the correct answer or conclusion to it suggests the meaning of the next, and so on. In that way all minimum requirements are definitely and completely provided for. The instructions to the pupils are made clear-cut and comprehensible in order that all may work with a feeling of complete understanding as to what will be required of them.

Special materials intended to develop a cultural appreciation are included for the general students, while more advanced and thorough work is included for the college preparatory group. A definite time limit of six weeks (four one-hour periods per week) is set for the completion of each unit. A bibliography is suggested for each topic. Much care is taken in the selection of the books in order that a wide range of material will be available. For example, McNeal's *Europe and Its Beginnings* is included for general reading purposes when it is necessary for students to get the perspective of a whole unit of work before starting to solve its detailed problems. The range of textbooks extends from the more simplified works, such as Barnard and Roorbach's *Epochs of World Progress* and Robinson,

Smith, and Breasted's *Our World Today and Yesterday*, to the more difficult high-school histories, such as Webster's *Modern European History*, Schapiro and Morris's *Civilization in Europe*, and Hazen's *Modern Europe*. Such a range makes it possible for the teacher to direct the individual pupils to the kind of materials which will serve each one best. A specimen of one quarter of a unit as it is mimeographed and handed to the pupils as a direction sheet follows:

UNIT OF WORK—THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEON

Instructions: Record your solutions of the following problems in a notebook. Make use of the books referred to at the close of each of the four groups of regular exercises and any others that may be available in your home and at school or public libraries. Arrange the solutions which you record in your notebook beneath the respective headings that suggested them and thus work out a complete outline for the entire unit. Do all of the regular exercises in the order given, and then complete as many as possible of the special exercises, being sure to choose those which are most interesting to you.

Regular Exercises

I. The Eve of the French Revolution

1. Conditions under the Old Régime

- Into what three classes were the people of France divided? Under what circumstances did each class live?
- Summarize the financial condition of France. Why was the system of taxation so burdensome?
- Did the French enjoy freedom of the press, speech, and religion? Cite examples as proof for your answer.
- Do you think the scientific progress made during the eighteenth century might have helped to turn the people towards revolution?

2. The age of the "enlightened" despots

- Who were the "enlightened" despots of Russia, Prussia, Austria, and France? What do you think of their reforms?

3. Revolutionary developments before 1789

- What reforms were advocated by Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot, and Turgot?
- To what extent did the American Revolution serve as an example to the French?
- How did the French Encyclopedia help to undermine the Old Régime?

II. Bibliography

- James L. Barnard and Agnew O. Roorbach, *Epochs of World Progress* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1927), pp. 486-495.
- Henry W. Elson, *Modern Times and the Living Past* (New York: American Book Company, 1925), pp. 433-440.
- Albert E. McKinley, Arthur C. Howland, and Matthew L. Dann, *World History Today* (New York: American Book Company, c1927), pp. 146-165.
- Edgar H. McNeal, *Modern Europe and Its Beginnings* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1926), pp. 215-218.
- Clarence Perkins, *A History of European Peoples* (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1927), pp. 549-559.
- James H. Robinson, Emma P. Smith, and James H. Breasted, *Our World Today and Yesterday* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1924), pp. 268-280.
- Jacob S. Schapiro and Richard B. Morris, *Civilization in Europe* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1928), pp. 229-241.
- Hutton Webster, *Modern European History* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1925), pp. 134-153.
- Willis M. West, *Story of Modern Progress* (New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1931), pp. 256-266.

III. Special Exercises:

- Prepare a report to show the good and bad features of the administration of French affairs before 1789. (Use Harding, *Medieval and Modern History*, pp. 467-481, or Robinson, *Medieval and Modern History*, pp. 473-490.)
- Draw up a detailed list of the direct and indirect causes of the French Revolution.
- How might the ideas of Voltaire and Rousseau have prepared the way for the French Revolution?
- Suppose yourself a traveler in France about 1785 and report on the conditions you would find.
- Compare the manner of making laws under the Bourbon monarchy with our present system of legislation.
- Prepare a news article describing the daily life of the common people of Paris in 1789. (Use Lowell, *Eve of the French Revolution*, pp. 162-168.)
- In what ways did England and Englishmen help bring about the French Revolution?

These graduated assignment sheets, together with the personal inspiration and guidance of the teacher, will direct the pupils as they work individually at their tasks. To provide the proper environment in which to carry on such directed or supervised study, it is necessary to turn the regular classroom into a social-studies laboratory. Contrary to one's first expectations this does not involve any drastic alterations or unpleasant labors. A bookshelf is prepared for the textual and reference volumes, which are to be made available to the pupils for both laboratory and home-study use. The shelf includes books assembled from the school library, from the teacher's own collection, from the classroom textbooks, and from new purchases. A partial list of them has been given above in connection with the sample of the study sheets that are distributed to the pupils.

In addition to preparing the bookshelf, the teacher arranges and catalogues all available maps so that they can readily be used by the students. He sets up a bulletin board on which graphical devices, cartoons, news articles, pictures, and other stimulating materials may be displayed. He brings as much movable furniture as possible into the room, and then arranges it so that the pupils will be able to find places where they can work independently with the necessary materials surrounding them. These arrangements as far as possible are so made that the equipment can be reassembled readily whenever the development of the work calls for special instruction to selected groups. Moreover, the general set-up of the laboratory is such that it can provide for an entire class assemblage at the completion of each quarter of the unit of work when a full class period is devoted to group discussion.

These class discussions are centered around the general aims and purposes for which the part of the unit has been devised and studied. They are periods in which an attempt is made to clear up those difficulties

that have been confronted by a number of the pupils. Moreover, they provide an opportunity for the free expression of different opinions and attitudes which have developed among the pupils while they have been studying independently or under the personal direction of the teacher. They give an opportunity for the pupils of all levels to report upon the special exercises that they alone have prepared. Finally, they serve the teacher in his task of properly motivating the pupils for the new parts of the work to be undertaken.

The pupils soon come to look upon the mimeographed copies of the required and special exercises as their chief guide. However, when it is necessary, they call upon the teacher for direction and assistance. The teacher gives special attention to the development of the skills of finding with ease those materials which may be secured from the text and reference books, of properly making use of the maps and other materials that are available, of analyzing paragraphs and chapters for their chief and subordinate contributions, and of accurately assembling the same in logical form.

Meanwhile, the minimum requirement for earning a passing grade is understood to be the satisfactory completion of all of the required exercises and at least one of the special exercises selected by the pupil from each of the four groups. Each piece of work is judged as to quality, and is given a first, second, or third rating depending upon its degree of excellence. Upon the completion of the required work, the pupils undertake as many more of the special exercises as they are able to do within the remaining days of the prescribed time limit of six weeks for the entire unit, or one and a half weeks for each of its four parts. For each of these extra pieces of work that are approved, the pupil is awarded an additional point of credit. All written examinations are prepared so that the pupils' responses may be evaluated according to the same credit system.

Then these points of credit are recorded upon an individual progress chart and thus come to furnish a daily record of achievement. This chart avoids any carryover of the ways of judging work when classes are taught as homogeneous groups. The chart is prepared on a blackboard graph. Along its left-hand side is placed the class roll. Each of the squares following the pupils' names represent one point of credit and are shaded as the points are earned. Below the class roll a space is labeled, "Minimum Score," and the shaded blocks following it designate the number of points of credit required for a passing D, C, B, or A grade. Thus, each pupil may be constantly aware of his progress and the teacher is able at any moment to evaluate the results of his instruction in terms of individual, rather than group achievement.

The author has instructed a heterogeneous class of twenty-five pupils according to the above plans for the past two years. The advantages over group instruction are quite evident. When the newness of the procedure has worn off and an acquaintance with the various books has been made, when minor misunderstandings in the direction sheets have been cleared away and ease in the use of the materials has come, the pupils begin at once to demonstrate a new spirit in their work. When they are asked by the supervisor or the principal or a parent how much they like this new method of studying modern European affairs, their frank reply is that they are pleased with it, because it gives each one in the class the opportunity to work as fast and do as much as he is able, and then adequately rewards him for all that he has done. The problems of discipline, which arise when the class is taught as a unit and fast pupils are idle as the slower pupils recite, or slow pupils are idle as the fast pupils discuss problems in a way that the slower

ones cannot follow, completely disappear. Consequently, the teacher is permitted to give all of his attention to the direction of the pupils in their work.

In addition to these outward evidences of personal and social improvement, the individual achievement of the pupils has been checked by means of the American Council standardized European History Test. All questions relating to the units of work covered during the experimental period have been included in the examination. The papers have been graded in accordance with the instructions provided with the standardized test. The final averages have been translated into college entrance examination scores according to the transfer table attached to the grading sheet. It has been found that out of the heterogeneous group of twenty-five students, eight meet the standards set by the college entrance board examinations. Of the remaining seventeen, ten pupils have better than the average score for the test, while seven have ratings of average or slightly below average. More encouraging results certainly cannot be expected, for they indicate that the objectives of this individualized laboratory method of teaching are well obtained. The slower pupils do work that measures up to the average for slow classes taught under homogeneous grouping in the larger high schools of our country. And at the same time the faster pupils achieve and progress in their modern history work as well as those in the faster groups of the larger high schools and demonstrate that they will have no difficulty in meeting college entrance requirements. Thus, this method of teaching, when definitely adapted to a specific teacher, his class, and the school in which they work, is suggested as a reasonable solution to the perplexing problem of teaching heterogeneous classes in our smaller high schools.

Eor
soci
thus
teac
iiva
civi
Hav
Hig
such
effo
teac
and
mak

E
sch
the
new
me
adv
T
nee
ect,
pup
this
Me
Pri
Sti
Par
wit
was
T
firs
ing
and
nea
pla
of
Be
bea
gor
I
sha
can

A High-School Cabin

V. D. Hawkins

EDITOR'S NOTE: *If the high school is to fulfill its social functions, it must exploit the potential enthusiasms of its youths of all ages—pupils and teachers—for coöperative projects which may motivate and give direction to the significantly social-civic activities of all areas of school life. Mr. Hawkins, assistant principal of East Technical High School, Cleveland, Ohio, here explains how such a community project coördinated the social efforts of school and community. Social-study teachers should assume leadership in the launching and guidance of such undertakings if they would make their subjects vital.* P. W. L. C.

EAST TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, Cleveland, Ohio, was one of the first technical schools in the United States and one of the earliest schools to introduce the school newspaper, aeronautics, student management of study halls, and other educational adventures.

This school under the urge of this pioneering spirit now launches its newest project, a recreation cabin for the use of its pupils and teachers. Permission to locate this cabin in the Bedford Division of the Metropolitan Park System was granted to Principal Pliny H. Powers by William A. Stinchcomb, director of the Metropolitan Park Board. Work on the cabin was rushed with such enthusiasm and efficiency that it was ready for its 1933 summer program.

The site is ideal for the purpose. In the first place, it is accessible to the pupils (being only ten miles from the school building and within easy walking distance of the nearest street-car line) and, in the second place, it is in one of the most beautiful parts of the entire Metropolitan Park System, the Bedford Division, consisting of 1,100 acres beautifully wooded and lying along the wild gorge of Tinkers Creek.

For its setting it is placed on a triangular-shaped plateau which provides space for a camp and athletic activities. The cabin faces

a somewhat open space towards the northwest. From the other three sides extend undisturbed natural woods with trees of almost every variety, especially a number of magnificent forest-grown oaks. Near the apex of the triangular site the plateau drops almost precipitously, approximately 160 feet, to Tinkers Creek. This stream flowing over a rocky bed furnishes by its murmuring a gentle lullaby for the boys at night and a short distance from the camp an old-fashioned swimming hole by day. Footpaths from the cabin lead temptingly into the forest to a wonderful "nature trail" leading through the timberland and through the gorge.

Fitting into this beautiful setting and center of activity for the boys is the cabin itself, which by furnishing shelter will make this an all-weather, all-season recreation spot. The building is a low comfortable replica of a pioneer cabin, twenty feet wide and forty feet long. It is designed to accommodate easily twenty-six and may care for thirty-five boys. Its exterior is of leg siding, while the interior is finished in panels of knotty, stained, foot-wide plank. A rock-paved terrace extends across the front under a low overhanging roof. The wide door swinging on its huge iron hinges discloses a large hall thirty feet long and twenty feet wide with a great stone fireplace at one end. The hall is serviced by a washroom and a kitchen beyond the plank panels at the far end. The second floor is furnished with two rows of double-decked cots and two rows of single-decked cots.

The erection of the cabin was a typical East Tech project. It was built by pupils—different specializing groups doing the work by contract method. Thus the only cost was for material. The architectural department designed the cabin and supervised its con-

struction. The horticulture class prepared the location by moving some small trees to make room for the driveway and ball field. The foundry department did the excavating and placed the foundation footings. The woodworking classes handled the framing and building. The art classes designed the hinges and trimming and, with the cabin completed, the landscape-art classes will supervise any necessary pruning and planting to complete the beautiful picture.

During the summer vacation two instructors are continually in charge of the camp and boys who are pupils of East Technical High School and who would otherwise have little or no opportunity for an outing during the summer are taken to the camp in

groups of twenty to spend a few days under almost ideal outdoor conditions.

The finished camp is not only a place of recreation but will be used to supplement instruction. Because of its nearness to the school, pupils in the four-period specializing classes can be transported to the camp by the school truck and brought back in time for the other school work. Art classes will use it for sketching, science classes for studying nature, horticulture classes for studying trees and shrubbery, and engineering pupils for leveling and surveying. Also at intervals it will be reserved for the East Tech faculty. Here in this secluded sylvan retreat teachers with their families may rest or play.

Coming . . .

November Articles - Miscellaneous Problems

The Junior High School: An Evaluation in Terms of Character Development

Junior High School Grouping

The Examination

A Job Plan Assists Social Adjustments

A Survey of the Vocational Placement of 977 Adult Workers

How About the Athlete?

The
N
1
U
the
thre
enro
to p
and
for
perh
pose
fere
tion
D
publ
The
the
publ
the
cant
educ
"abo
"citi
A
tion
verti
dent
made
taria
have
that
shor
are
alike
ills
meet
faile
intell
civic
H
anew
Rugg
souls
gram
We
bank
be in
prog
muni
Th
ogy i
Publi
those

Book Reviews

The Great Technology, by HAROLD RUGG.
New York: The John Day Company,
1933, xiv + 508 pages.

Unless social chaos is to engulf our society in the next decade, the high school stands on the threshold of an enormous expansion in scope and enrollment. Society can well afford to support, and to protect itself it must support, day and evening and vacation educational and recreational facilities for the entire adolescent population up to twenty, perhaps to twenty-five, years of age. But the purposes and scope of such a school must be very different from those which characterize our conventional high schools.

During the past year or two the support of the public schools has been progressively restricted. The entrenched holders of wealth even challenge the very existence of the senior high school as a public, free, tax-supported institution. In reply, the professional defenders of the public school cant about "the child's birthright," "the priority of education over other governmental services," the "abolition of crime through schools," and the "citizenship training of the schools."

As our schools are dominated by socially reactionary, academically entrenched staffs, and extrovertic, back-slapping principals and superintendents, our defense is hollow and unreal. We have made our appeal to *bourgeoisie*, opportunistic Rotarians and they have deserted us. Too seldom have we ourselves any philosophy for our schools that justifies public support. We are brought up short with the realization that we and our schools are distrusted by reactionary and progressive, alike. We may not be fairly blamed for the social ills that beset society. But certainly we cannot meet the challenge that, so far, we have utterly failed in our positive duty to prepare youths for intelligent and vigorous participation in social-civic life.

Here is a book that should help us to start anew. If we can make our own the vision that Dr. Rugg enfolds for us, we may yet save our own souls and with them the spiritual and social program that should characterize our public schools. We may not be enabled to regain the support of bankers and realtors and stockbrokers. But we will be inspired to build anew on the sounder support of progressive, critical, and socially intelligent community groups.

The purpose and scope of *The Great Technology* is implied in the subtitle, *Social Chaos and the Public Mind*. It is a very adequate attempt to help those of us who are conscious of our own bewil-

derment in the present confused state of affairs to orient ourselves. But the book goes much farther than that. It inspires us to wish to join with other men of good will and social intelligence to make an earnest and sustained effort to resolve the social confusion for ourselves and to support public officers—statesmen, teachers, and preachers—who are honestly endeavoring to arouse an informed public opinion and to sponsor positive efforts to adjust our quasi-civilization to deal with the realities of today and tomorrow.

Major Units in the Social Studies for the Intermediate Grades, edited by CHARLES W. WADDELL, CORINNE A. SEEDS, and NATALIE WHITE. New York: The John Day Company, 1932, 390 pages.

The curriculum studies of the staff of the elementary school of the University of California in Los Angeles are exemplified by three units: studies of Chinese life (grade 4), of colonial life (grade 5), and of aeronautics (grade 6). The units are set forth in detail, with illustrations, diagrams, and tests. They are preceded by an introduction and by a chapter expressing the points of view regarding education held by the authors of these studies, including a statement of the relation of art, music, and physical education to an integrated school program centered largely around the social studies. The authors present the units, *not* as models to be followed in other schools, but as illustrations to show what they mean by activity units and their possibilities. This book is decidedly worth while for students of modern curriculum experimentation in both elementary and secondary schools.

United States History: From the Old World to the New; The Birth of Our Nation; A Nation's Progress; Twentieth Century America, by EUGENE COLLIGAN and MAXWELL F. LITWIN. New York: William H. Sadlier, 1932.

These three volumes follow closely the New York City history syllabus for grades 7A, 7B, 8A, and 8B. The organization is topical, rather than chronological, with dependence on cross references and supplementary material in the appendices to prevent a loss of the historical time sense. The books are well organized and illustrated, and the vocabulary, sentence structures, and paragraphs are well adapted to children found in the upper grades of modern elementary schools.

A Child's Geography of the World, by VIRGIL MORES HILLYER. New York: The Century Company, 1929, xvii+472 pages.

Mr. Hillyer who was for over thirty years the headmaster of the Calvert School in Baltimore prepared two most attractive volumes for younger children somewhat similar to those of Van Loon. These books are now published in new and cheaper editions which make them more readily available for school use.

The history starts at the beginning, "How Things Started," and ends with "Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow." The preface, which is written "for that old man or woman—twenty, thirty, or forty years old," says that its purpose is to take the child "out of his little self-centered, shut-in life, which looms so large because it is so close to his eyes." The book fulfills its aim; the author knows boys and girls; he presents the stream of history as a good story-teller presents his plot; he characterizes his man and events so that the young reader has a vivid impression—almost as though he had known them personally. The concepts utilized are those that are already meaningful; thus, Story 22, Rome Kicks Out Her Kings, or Story 40, White Toughs and Yellow Toughs Meet the Champions of the World.

The geography, as written for the child who thinks heaven is in the sky and hell is under the ground, shows him "what is beyond the horizon, from 'Kalamazoo to Timbuktu'—not the 'Seven Wonders of the World' but seventy times the 'Seven Wonders of the World.'" The book itself lays a foundation of interest and knowledge and wonder that makes children eager to travel vicariously, if not actually, and able to take on their travels some understanding of what they are to see and learn on their journeys. Both volumes are attractively illustrated and may be enjoyed by many people who are older than those for whom they were written.

These United States and How They Came to Be, by GERTRUDE HARTMAN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, vi+335 pages, \$5.00.

This volume is a sequel to Miss Hartman's earlier volume, *The World We Live In and How It Came to Be*. In it she seeks successfully to recapture for the reader something of the reality of the peoples and times of which she writes. By means of illustrations, quotations, and a remarkably clear and straightforward style, she takes us to live among the Indians, in their homes, their games, their hunts; we catch the spirit of Spain in its great days and of the English during the

Elizabethan period; we dwell in the homes of the colonial people; and so on through the struggle for a continent, the movement to the West and on to the Pacific, and to the towering cities and the busy hum of men. The title of her last chapter, "America Grows Up," applies to post-war America and seems a bit unjustified in the light of the infantile behaviors of the "Golden Twenties" and their resulting crash.

How the Present Came from the Past, Book II, by MARGARET E. WELLS. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, xvi+348 pages, \$1.00.

For almost two decades the boys and girls in many American elementary and junior high schools have been delighted with these stories of the early civilizations and adapted for children of the present. A new edition of this popular book has now been published, with an added section, "Rock News from the Orient," recording the outstanding results of recent excavations in the eastern Mediterranean lands. The book has been written; illustrated, and printed with the children of the elementary grades in mind, but its style and subject matter and pictures are equally thrilling to adolescents and adults.

Elementary World History, by CHARLES A. BEARD and WILLIAM G. BAGLEY. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932, xv+461 pages, \$1.60.

In the subtitle of this book, it is called a revised and simplified edition of "Our Old World Background" which has been an adequate text for junior-high-school pupils for the past decade. The present edition is adapted for children of ten or twelve years of age. Its language has been simplified and teaching aids have been added, but the plan of the original book has not been changed. It remains perhaps the most adequate exposition of the background of western civilization, of which America is a part, available for school children.

Our United States, by WILLIAM BACKUS GUITTEAU. New York: Silver Burdett and Company, 1930, xi+626 pages, \$1.68.

Guitteau's history is brought up-to-date by revision of its later chapters covering the period from the World War until the early years of the Hoover administration. The treatment of subject matter is chronological; the style is clear, straightforward exposition; the illustrations and maps are well selected.

The Clearing House

*A journal for progressive junior and
senior high-school people*

High-School Problems

	<i>Page</i>
EDITORIAL: The Peak in Education	F.E.L. 131
I AM AN ATHLETE	Kenneth Brosne 133
ADMISSION TO DARTMOUTH COLLEGE	E. Gordon Bill 139
JOB PLAN ASSISTS SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS	Mary M. Kelso 144
HOW MY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL HELPED ME	Billy Pfeffer 149
SCHOLARSHIP AND FUNDAMENTALS	Ross N. Young 151
A FOREIGN-LANGUAGE PROGRAM	Robert W. Frederick and Virginia B. Smith 153
PSYCHIATRY AND THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL	Frederick L. Patry 157
CHARACTER TRAINING IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL	Lofter Bjarnason 167
PAN-AMERICANA	Norman H. Whitehead 172
DARE STUDENTS BUILD THE CURRICULUM?	Dora Willson and E. L. Terman 176
SURVEY OF ADULT VOCATIONAL PLACEMENT	J. R. Shannon 180
STRAWS IN THE EDUCATIONAL WIND	William McAndrew 186
OTHERS SAY	Floyd E. Harshman 187
BOOK REVIEWS	188



THE PARTNERSHIP FOR QUALITY

Teachers' salaries are the public's heaviest investment in education; from 60 to 70 percent of the total. Everywhere educators and public spirited citizens are fighting to keep them at a high level with the argument that good teachers, well remunerated, assure quality in instruction.

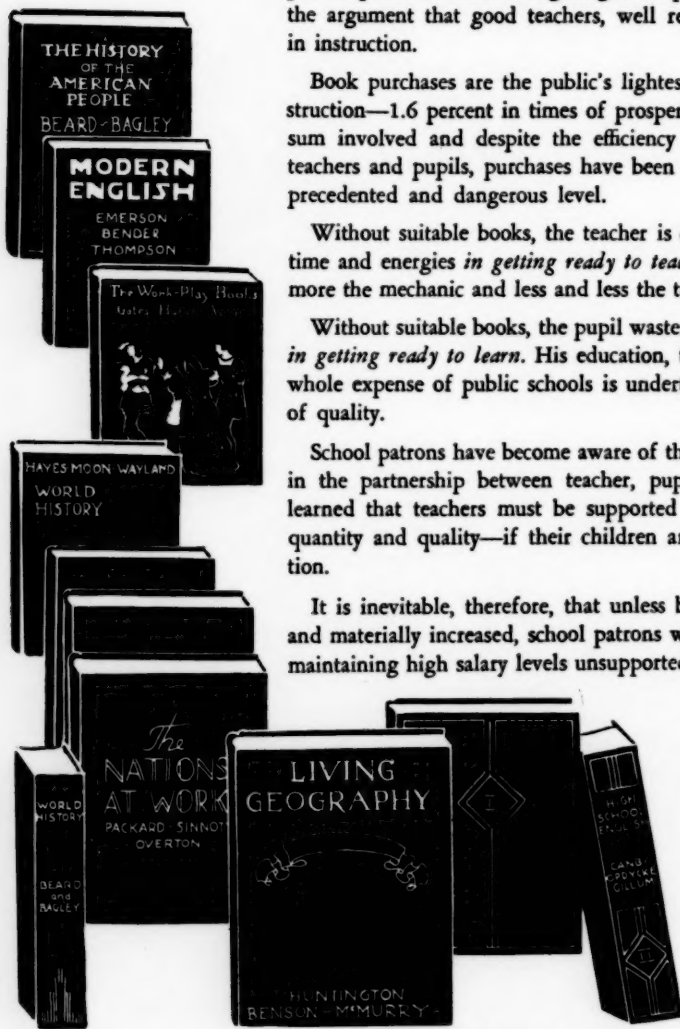
Book purchases are the public's lightest investment for good instruction—1.6 percent in times of prosperity. But, despite the small sum involved and despite the efficiency of the book in assisting teachers and pupils, purchases have been allowed to sink to an unprecedented and dangerous level.

Without suitable books, the teacher is compelled to dissipate her time and energies in *getting ready to teach*. She becomes more and more the mechanic and less and less the teacher.

Without suitable books, the pupil wastes time, energy, and interest in *getting ready to learn*. His education, the purpose for which the whole expense of public schools is undertaken, suffers a severe loss of quality.

School patrons have become aware of the effects of the breakdown in the partnership between teacher, pupil, and book. They have learned that teachers must be supported with books—adequate in quantity and quality—if their children are to receive good instruction.

It is inevitable, therefore, that unless book purchases are rapidly and materially increased, school patrons will question the efficacy of maintaining high salary levels unsupported by healthy book budgets.



MACMILLAN BOOKS

are available in a wide range of subjects to support teachers in the work of maintaining quality.

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

New York Boston Chicago Dallas Atlanta San Francisco

In writing advertisers please mention CLEARING HOUSE